

ADMINISTERING
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

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A Co-operative Educational Enterprise

WILLIAM C. REAVIS

*Director of Field Services, Emeritus Professor of Education
Department of Education, University of Chicago*

PAUL R. PIERCE

*Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Instruction and Guidance
Chicago, Illinois*

EDWARD H. STULLKEN

*Principal, Montifiore Special School
Chicago, Illinois*

BERTRAND L. SMITH

*Superintendent of Elementary Schools
Oak Park, Illinois*

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Preface

This book has been prepared to help school principals and teachers engaged in elementary education enter into administration as a co-operative educational enterprise. An effort has been made to eliminate the prevailing dichotomy between administrators and those administered so as to develop a sound basis for both to plan and share in the operation of the school as a laboratory of living and learning for children.

In the conduct of the school, the principal is, of course, recognized as the captain of the school team, who will provide the leadership needed by the faculty and the pupils as team members. The strength of the team and its functioning, however, will be conditioned not only by the concept of leadership which prevails but also by the extent and character of co-operation which is effected.

The importance of the philosophy of administration presented is justified by the scope and function of the elementary school in American life. The elementary school, the fundamental unit of the American public school system, serves approximately ninety per cent of the children of elementary school age. Since these children are en route to high school, perhaps to institutions of higher learning, and eventually to life pursuits, nothing short of essential preparation for life in democratic society will suffice. Accordingly, every professional worker who deals with children in this formative period of their lives should be convinced that the American social order is the best yet developed and should practice this belief in the administration and teaching of the school in order that these children may emulate them.

The authors are not mere theorists in elementary school administration. Each has had sound practical experience in the organization and administration of elementary schools under varying conditions and circumstances. They have set forth their mature views of the principles and practices which should guide those engaged in preparation for professional work or in the actual operation of classrooms and schools in the elementary unit of the American school system.

THE AUTHORS

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Functions of the Elementary School

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN THE United States is destined to have an increasingly significant role in our system of public education during the second half of the twentieth century. Social and economic changes already apparent are certain to affect all aspects of human life necessitating concomitant changes in the schools. Prediction of these changes, however, must be based on three fundamental assumptions.

The first assumption is that progress in the sciences such as that made in the first half of the century will continue in the second half. Already the impact of science on human growth and development has been tremendous, both on the individual and on society. Many hazards to life have been largely overcome through progress in medical science. The living of people, not only in our own country but also throughout the world, has been improved and enriched by the advances made in the physical sciences. The productive power of our people has been greatly extended by scientific inventions providing increased leisure time for the use and enjoyment of the benefits that these inventions have made possible. This is not to say, however, that the progress resulting from the great advances

in science has not increased and even created new and almost overwhelming problems and responsibilities for individuals and the social order. The solution of the problems and the successful assumption of the responsibilities brought about by the rapid developments in science depend primarily on the effectiveness of education.

A second assumption is that the second half of the twentieth century will find America and much of the world engaged in an effort to secure a clearer solution to one of the most perplexing problems of mankind; namely, the most desirable relationship between the individual and the state. The first half of the century saw the rise and fall of a number of dictatorships. The evidence seems to indicate that this period will bring wider acceptance of the philosophy that a developing, representative, democratic social order is the most desirable type of state. This philosophy maintains that the rights, responsibilities, freedoms, and earned privileges of the individual are to be protected, guaranteed, and respected, provided, of course, that there is no infringement of the rights and freedoms of other citizens. Granting the soundness of this philosophy, it becomes imperative for the elementary school to serve the individual in such a way as to produce citizens qualified to make a desirable social order possible.

A third basic assumption is that the purposes, organization, and operation of the elementary school will be centered in and will exemplify the best that is known in representative democratic practices and procedures. It is recognized that both human and spiritual relationships need further and continual clarification and refinement. A state that is the servant of man, that respects the dignity and personality of the individual citizen, that exists by the consent of the governed, and that recognizes the Fatherhood of God must provide a sound general education (elementary and secondary). One of the chief purposes of such a common education is to insure that the young will grow up to be the kind of citizens required for the perpetuation and development of our democratic social order.

Such a social order can neither be brought to its fullest realization, nor can it be perpetuated, without a more and more effective elementary school. It is equally true that an elementary school cannot be an effective laboratory of living and learning for the young unless it is nurtured by a developing democratic social order.

HISTORIC GOALS OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The purpose of the common school has always been to serve its community. Because of this, different demands have been made on the elementary school at different periods of community development. Four such periods of special emphasis can be clearly identified.

First period. In the first period emphasis was placed upon religious training. It was felt by the early Massachusetts settlers that "the old deluder Satan" wished to keep the people in ignorance of the Scriptures and the means of salvation. In 1647 the General Court of Massachusetts passed an act requiring every township of fifty householders to appoint someone to teach the children to read and write and every township of one hundred householders to set up a grammar school. Very little writing and calculating were thought necessary at this time. Young men who didn't grow up into the occupation of their fathers learned a trade through apprenticeship. Young women became housewives and learned their tasks in the home. Life was simple in Colonial times. Little more than hard work and application to the task at hand was necessary.

Second period. The emphasis in the second period was upon general literacy. After more than a hundred and fifty years, the American colonies won independence from the mother country. Events then occurred almost too fast to grasp. The adoption of the Federal Constitution soon became a reality. The new nation was to be governed by its people. There was to be no king, emperor, or czar! This made it urgent that all voting citizens should be literate so they could make wise decisions at the town meeting and the polling places. The new republic took steps to

make sure that its citizens became literate. Massachusetts passed a compulsory education law in 1837; and Horace Mann, the first secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, saw to it that the law was enforced. With this precedent, other states began to adopt compulsory education on somewhat similar lines. Out of necessity for an informed citizenry, a universal education program was gradually developed.

Third period. Social mobility became a reality in the third period. The election of Andrew Jackson and the "Era of Jacksonian Democracy" gave rise to the belief that education was far more than informing a citizenry for purposes of government. It seemed clear now that the common man could rise above his original status in life by acquiring an education. As a result, schools began to veer away from the old European classical mold, with trade and agricultural colleges beginning to appear. Elementary schools began to offer more than the mere rudiments, because the cobbler's son had the opportunity of reaching the highest post in the land just as much as the son of any other citizen. This was an era when the state colleges made their appearance, and the climax was reached when President Lincoln signed the Land Grant Act that fostered our present system of sixty-nine state colleges and universities.

Fourth period. The emphasis in the fourth period was shifted to citizenship and character development. During the latter half of the nineteenth century and the early years of the twentieth, this emphasis was evident in all textbooks and lesson materials. Every story in the McGuffey Reader, every lesson in the "bluebacked Speller," every handwriting exercise had its moral—usually more or less obvious to the learner. It was an emphasis that recognized that problems are created by people living close together in cities and working side by side in factories, an emphasis that proposed to solve vicariously some of the pressing social problems brought about by our changing pattern of living.

As a result of the developments in each of these periods, elementary education now places the *emphasis upon balanced*

personality development. This emphasis includes a program of guidance and adjustment that is a more subtle approach to citizenship and character development. It is the approach of practice in the arts of democratic living and of learning by doing. The curriculum has been enriched by the inclusion of the creative arts—music, dramatics, painting, and drawing; by shop and household arts; by creating a felt need for physical health through an athletic program; and by including what are generally called extra-class activities.

The elementary school of today and the future must recognize all of these historic goals in striving for a balanced program of education. Such a balanced program aims to develop citizens who will be competent in terms of today's conditions and problems and who will realize that they are expected to be competent in the face of a future that will bring change in many phases of living.

BASIC FUNCTION OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The basic function of the elementary school is to guide every child to have those living and learning experiences that will enable him to behave as a responsible, considerate, contributing citizen at every stage of his development. The school subscribing to this philosophy must take into account the social order in which the child now lives and the one in which he is likely to live. Also, the definition implies that two major kinds of learning are needed: that dealing with individual living and that dealing with group living.

The area of individual living and learning experiences includes those attitudes, abilities, and skills that insure economic efficiency and self-realization. It includes the knowledge and desire to maintain good physical, emotional, and spiritual growth. It includes the skills basic to formal learning—the "tool" subjects, plus the work and study habits needed to capitalize on the basic skills. It implies efficiency in the arts of communication—thinking, comprehending the printed page, writing, listening, and conversation. It includes cultural and

creative experiences in the fields of music, art, dramatics, and the like. It includes such other experiences as are considered necessary by the faculty working with children, parents, and the community through a representative democratic participation system.

The area of group development and living experiences includes those attitudes, abilities, and skills that insure satisfactory human relationships and proper acceptance of civic responsibility. The individual should develop the ability to get along well with others—to grow from a self-centered person into an intelligent member of society so that he will discharge responsibilities commensurate with maturity and capacity. The individual will be expected to measure up to such other attitudes, abilities, and skills of group development and living as are determined necessary by the school.

Every teacher, principal, superintendent, board member, consultant, pupil, parent, community leader, and lay citizen should be encouraged to think of the school as a laboratory of living and learning that provides for the two kinds of experiences just discussed.

It should again be pointed out that experiences designed to teach the abilities and skills of individual development usually deal with the acquisition of tools that make better living possible. Such tools are measurable in terms of minimum essentials and standards of achievement. But herein lies a grave danger that the result of such measurement will become the goal, rather than the learnings desired. The teacher must never lose sight of the fact that the tools are only a means to an end and not an end in themselves.

Again, the experiences designed to teach the abilities and skills of group development and living deal with a significant area of high-quality living that is jointly planned and carried out by teacher and pupils. Such experiences cannot be measured by minimum essentials of subject matter or by standards of achievement. They can only be measured by how well the abilities of group living are practiced in current and future

living. Because of a lack of specific measures, there is grave danger that teachers will be apt to overlook the importance of this area. The result is a sterile, unrealistic, impersonal classroom climate where the tool subjects become the end and aim of learning and the only rewards are the marks given by the teacher. Fortunately such poverty of learning experiences is becoming rare. Most professional staff members are now doing an excellent job in the area of social living.

Much confusion has resulted from failure to distinguish between the two types of living and learning experiences and from attempts to measure them as if they were one general experience. Many conditions will have to be modified by statesmanlike educational leadership and effective community teamwork if the school is to be successfully designed and developed as a laboratory of living and learning.

GOALS AND GUIDING PRINCIPLES

A successful elementary school draws its goals and guiding principles from the ideals, achievements, aspirations, and needs of the social order in which it exists and from the nature and needs of growing children. It is a mistake to center the goals of the schools in either the nature and needs of society or the nature and needs of children alone. Every person who wants to earn the designation "professional" in education should dedicate himself to a continuous study of both of the goals designated.

It should be apparent to all that we live in a changing world. Fashions in women's clothing change from year to year and from season to season. The newest in AM-FM three-speed record-changer radios has been supplanted by the latest in large-screen television. The new model automobile is on the showroom floor before the old one is paid for. The first half century gave man the aeroplane; the second half the jet-propelled craft with which he flits from continent to continent and makes plans for interplanetary travel. In such an environment, when the tempo of change is so bewildering, can there be any

basis for determining the nature and needs of society or of those who live in it?

The prolific inventiveness of this age has affected and will continue to affect many aspects of living. The elementary school must not lose sight of the fact that many of the inventions are only gadgets after all. The basic truths of living, of government, and of spiritual satisfactions have not changed. The ideals, dreams, and aspirations of the founders of this country should become a guide and an inspiration for every young American. As expressed in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States, the basic truths are the political and legal assurance of those rights, privileges, freedoms, and responsibilities that are uniquely American. The achievements of this society can be learned and weighed through a study of its history. Thorough grounding in the two original sources of the purposes of American government can prevent following of fashions and will-of-the-wisp ideas in government as in everything else. A second secure anchor is the concept of morality as embodied in the Judeo-Christian religion. Religious dogma has very wisely been excluded from the learning materials of American public schools. This does not mean that religious ideals should not be the light that illuminates the way in all human growth and development.

Research has produced and continues to produce much of value in the study of child growth and development. The same is true of the study of society and its developmental needs. Every Board of Education, every faculty, and every community must develop a philosophy that strikes some kind of balance between the needs of our developing social order and the needs of developing children. It is the point of view of this book that the elementary school must constantly check the program and educational practices against the findings of those who study our society and its children. Those who take the position that it must be one emphasis or the other seem to the writers to violate the requirement of balance in goals and purposes.

DEMOCRATIC PROCEDURES IN TEACHING AND MANAGEMENT

The elementary school should be conceived as a laboratory of living and learning to be operated according to the best that is known in democratic processes and procedures. This means that the board of education, the school administration, pupils, parents, faculty, and others should work together in the formulation of policies and that such policies should be applied in the day-to-day operation of the school system. Such operation requires an atmosphere or climate that encourages growth for all those who are in any way associated with the school. It is recommended that local school systems design and develop a type of organization that will encourage wide participation in policy formulation and policy evaluation. Such a plan should be custom made for the school system and the community concerned. The following diagram illustrates how a plan of participation may be developed.

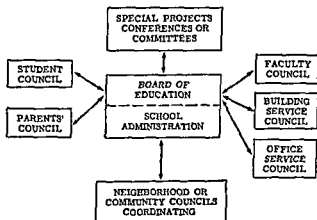


Fig. 1. Plan for School System Participation.

The functions and relations of the different groups shown in the diagram are indicated briefly in the following comments:

1. *Board of Education.* The board of education is the legal policy-making body of the school system. Its members are se-

lected to represent the people of the community that the school system serves. Powers are delegated by the state legislature and duties not specified may be implied. The personnel needed to operate the schools are elected by the board, which in the interest of efficient administration should encourage and approve the development of a system of participation intended to secure from each employee the best services the employee is capable of rendering both as an individual and as a member of his school group. The board should also encourage its superintendent to set up a plan for enlisting the co-operation and participation of the group shown in the diagram in the operation of the schools.

2. *Professional administration.* The board of education selects an educational administrator who serves as its professional executive. This officer recommends the administrative assistants needed, staff advisers and supervisors, and the teaching personnel. Good administration requires that the chief executive provide leadership for this professional staff and enlist its full participation in the solution of the educational problems of the school system. In order to keep himself and the board fully informed and to obtain the co-operation of his staff, channels of communication must be established and kept continually open for the flow of ideas as to the problems and needs of the schools.

3. *Faculty council.* The faculty council should be a representative body of elected members chosen by the different faculty groups of the school system to serve as intermediaries between the professional administration and the groups they represent. This provides a system of intercommunication for the pooling of ideas in the consideration of school problems and in the formulation of school policies.

4. *Student council.* The general student council should consist of the group of officers of the different school councils within the school system. These officers have been elected to positions of leadership in the local schools according to the plan of student participation in school operation approved by

the school system. The council is privileged to meet periodically with the school administration to present, consider, and carry back to the groups represented the deliberations of the council on matters that received consideration.

5. *Parents council.* This is a deliberative and co-ordinating group of officers of local units of the parent-teacher association or other parent organizations. The function of this council is the cultivation of better school and home relations through the sharing of information and the development of mutual understanding between parents and school personnel.

6. *Building service council.* The personnel of this council consists of the school principal, engineer, and representatives of the teaching staff, student council, parent-teacher association, and school custodians. It considers problems pertaining to the proper use and care of building and grounds and the interpretation of governing rules, regulations, and policies to the groups represented in the council. A building service council may function at the local school level and at the school system level through representatives elected by each local school council.

7. *Office service council.* Because the school office is a service unit and a clearing house for information, it is essential that both those who serve in the office and those served by the office have an agency through which views can be shared and changes in policies proposed and considered. Meetings of this council should be held when problems in need of consideration arise. An office service council may function at the local school level and at the school system level through elected representatives.

8. *Co-ordinating councils.* A co-ordinating council may function effectively at both the neighborhood and community levels. An organization of this type should be a representative body that stems from the organized groups within the neighborhood or community. As shown in Figs. 2 and 3, the school, or school system, may be viewed as a unit in a neighborhood or community council. The function of such an organization is

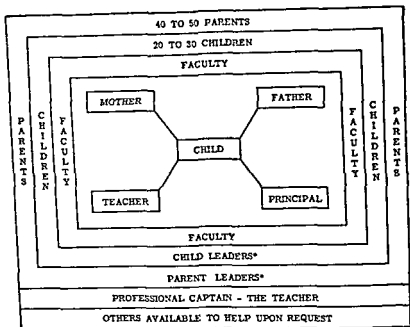


Fig. 2. Diagram of Classroom Team.

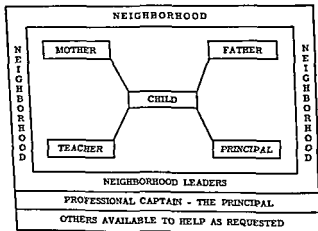


Fig. 3. Diagram of an Individual School Team.

to consider the needs of the neighborhood or community, including the needs of the school or school system. Sometimes the school or school system encourages the formation of a coordinating council if one does not exist. After a council has been developed, the school or school system should play its role as one of many community agencies that work toward a better neighborhood or community.

9. *Special purpose conferences or committees.* Persons from any of the councils indicated in the participation plan or from other community organizations may be invited to come together by the school administration and board of education to consider problems of special concern to the schools. The authors believe that citizens advisory committees function best when they are directed toward the solution of particular school problems in co-operation with school officials. The function of such groups is to consider the needs and problems of the schools and to participate with educational leaders in the improvement of the schools. In carrying out this function conference or committee members share information, engage in co-operative thinking, and reach conclusions regarding the special problem that is the reason for the conference or committee. When the purpose has been accomplished, a special purpose conference or committee is discontinued.

The basic elements of a participation system that exemplifies representative democratic procedures will be developed more fully in later chapters. One of the most important elements is the *spirit or climate that surrounds the genuine practice of participation in policy formulation and policy evaluation*. No form of organization or system of participation will guarantee the proper climate. On the other hand, such a climate can be encouraged by the use of an effective participation plan in school organization and operation.

IMPORTANCE OF THE FUNDAMENTALS

The good elementary school teaches the fundamentals (sometimes referred to as the Three R's), together with such

other attitudes, abilities, and skills as are required for effective citizenship in a developing society. It must be remembered, however, that methods and materials used in teaching the fundamentals have changed as the implications of research have been translated into practice. This is just as true of education as it is of the television and automobile industries. As the requirements for effective citizenship have expanded, the elementary school has been called upon to teach reading, writing, speaking, listening, spelling, arithmetic, critical thinking, and other fundamentals better and in less time. So much is now included in the curriculum that less time is required for the "Three R's." A glance at the development of the elementary school curriculum will make this generalization clear.

TABLE I
SUBJECTS INCLUDED IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
CURRICULUM AT FOUR DIFFERENT PERIODS *

1635	1775	1875	1950
Reading	Reading Writing Arithmetic	Reading Writing Arithmetic Spelling Conduct Language and Grammar Geography History and Civics Drawing Music Nature Study Physical Exercises	Reading Writing Arithmetic Spelling Character Education Language and Grammar Geography History, Civics, and Current Events Art Music Science Health and Physical Education Safety Education Industrial Arts Home Economics Agriculture Consumer Education Personal Typewriting Air-Age Geography Atomic Energy Human Relations

* Adapted from Ward G. Reeder, *School Boards and Superintendents* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944), p. 192.

Since the above list was compiled, further expansion has taken place. As an example, music has blossomed into chorus, band, orchestra, and appreciation, in addition to group singing for enjoyment. Drawing has now become art, including the use of many media in the expressive and creative arts field.

Some confusion has, of course, been experienced with regard to the best method in guiding children in the mastery of the fundamentals. However, it is difficult to find anyone who does not agree that learning is better where there is meaning for the learner. On the basis of research supporting this view, schools have started to reject the older plan of meaningless memorization as being inefficient, and replacing it with a plan that calls for the child to be guided to understand what he is trying to learn before he practices or drills himself in the use of the attitude, ability, or skill concerned. Even the severest critics of public education agree that the school must do more and more to develop good citizens in our society. Such a goal cannot be achieved without skillful, efficient teaching of the fundamental attitudes, abilities, and skills.

IMPROVEMENT OF HUMAN BEHAVIOR AND SOCIETY

The elementary school must make every effort to insure that the child, in his various stages of development, will grow toward good citizenship. His behavior will improve from the *stage of the selfish, self-centered infant toward that of a full-fledged member of society*. In so doing he will develop a sense of responsibility to society, together with the will to improve it. Education for behavior improvement uses all of the laws of learning and motivation in working with persons who are associated with the school.

The teaching of moral and spiritual values is an important area of the total school program. The American philosophy of separation of church and state makes it unwise for the public school to undertake the direct teaching of religion; but it should be recognized that the goal toward which the behavior of children, youth, and adults should be directed is the "good

life" as it is embodied in the Judeo-Christian ideal. This ideal is the legal, moral, and spiritual basis of western civilization and should become a part of the culture of every American. Every teacher should be familiar with the recommendations of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association as presented at the San Francisco convention in 1951. The Commission report¹ points out those minimum moral and spiritual values that should be included in all public school programs. Close co-operation with the home, church, and community will determine what further values should be taught in any particular school community.

EDUCATING THE TOTAL CHILD

An effective school considers the total life of the child as it makes plans with and for him in the school, home, and community. This requires careful consideration of each child's spiritual, emotional, physical, intellectual, social, and economic well-being. It means that the school recognizes the fact that a child is in school only a small fraction of his total living time and that the educative and miseducative elements of out-of-school life must be taken into account as plans for in-school learning and living are made. Serious consideration of this idea leads to the formulation of an effective partnership on the part of school, home, and community. Such a partnership needs to dedicate itself to providing the best possible educational program for girls and boys during their waking hours. Later sections of this book will develop the principles and methods for use in creating and operating such a school-community partnership.

THE LOCAL SCHOOL AS A UNIT IN A TOTAL SCHOOL SYSTEM

The individual elementary school should be conceived as a unit in a continuous educational system that begins with nursery or kindergarten and extends through the elementary

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *Moral and Spiritual Values in Public Schools* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951).

school, secondary school, trade or technical school, college or university, and a program of adult education. The doors of the public elementary school are open to all the children of all the people, regardless of nationality, race, creed, and social or economic standing. The public elementary school is the result of the American dream of an enlightened, capable, self-governing people. It is supported by taxes levied on all citizens. It is the unit of first experience in a continuous educational program that serves children from the time they leave the home for organized school living until they enter the secondary school or leave school according to the age of entrance, promotion, and school-leaving policies of the community concerned.

The effective elementary school also serves as an educational and social center for those of all ages in the school community. Its plant is designed and operated to take care of community activities without interference with the program of education for children.

LEARNING AS A LIFELONG PROCESS

The good elementary school views learning as a process that goes on within every human being from birth until death. Those who operate the school understand that learning may be socially desirable or undesirable, depending upon the goals toward which it is directed. Learning is defined as the behavior that a learner has incorporated into his current feeling, thinking, and acting as the cumulative result of his experiences. The results of learning are measured in terms of behavior changes that take place in the learner. The demonstrated possession of facts and the ability to repeat information or to memorize items are not considered sure signs of learning although they are considered in their proper place in learning. Attitudes, abilities, skills, facts, information, and good manners are all given an important place in a balanced program of living and learning. All of those associated with school children are dedicated to

providing the best possible program of learning experiences for each child and for the groups of which he is a member.

SATISFYING AND ACCEPTABLE BEHAVIOR

The elementary school should view education as a process of growth and development in which a child is guided to have learning experiences that will enable him to feel, think, and act so that his behavior will be increasingly satisfying to himself and increasingly acceptable to his fellow human beings. Every child grows and develops as an individual, and as a member of several groups. He needs to develop the attitudes, abilities, and skills of both individual and group living. This is possible only when the elementary school looks upon education as a process of growth and development through guided living and learning experiences. The school needs to design learning experiences for both individual and group living and development. It is necessary for those associated with the school to realize that a general elementary school experience does not necessarily serve as an effective development of either the individual abilities or of group-living abilities. As previously indicated, the final goal for individual and group behavior in our culture is embodied in the Judeo-Christian ideal, a goal that the school strives to reach through teamwork relations with home and community.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES RECOGNIZED

A good elementary school must recognize the existence of individual differences and build its program to serve children without injury to the individual or to society. This necessitates flexibility in the curriculum, adaptability in teaching methods, constant appraisal of growth, and the need to provide a great variety of instructional materials designed for use in the living and learning of a particular group of children made up of particular individuals. Where individual differences are so great as to handicap a child in learning, he should be provided a program that will recognize his handicap while minimizing it

as much as possible. Grouping children on the basis of mental ability alone sets up a situation that is not a healthy social climate. Hence the elementary school should use flexible groupings based upon *many factors of growth and development, achievements, and potentials.*

IMPORTANCE OF QUALIFIED PERSONNEL

For an elementary school to be effective it must be supplied with well-qualified personnel in sufficient numbers to make work loads reasonable and compensated at levels that will attract and retain persons of integrity, initiative, and professional competence. The functions of the school cannot be achieved unless the proper personnel is made available. The large numbers of children today represent our most valuable resource. It therefore seems only a matter of good national policy to invest enough of our national income in a program to make this resource valuable to our nation and to the world.

ADEQUATE FACILITIES, EQUIPMENT, AND SUPPLIES

For an elementary school to be good it must be supplied with adequate physical facilities, equipment, and supplies. These items must be made available in sufficient variety and quantity to permit the school to function effectively as a real laboratory of guided living and learning. The teacher must have the initiative to use a wide variety of materials, the ingenuity to devise new methods that call for new materials, and the urge to requisition them. Later chapters will deal with these elements of a good school in considerable detail.

FUNCTION DETERMINES ACTION

The conception of function is highly important in the work of designing and operating an elementary school. The kind of feeling, thinking, and acting that a school principal, a faculty, a parent group, a pupil group, a school system, or a community will do with regard to elementary education depends upon the idea of function that is accepted as the basis for planning and action.

A clear understanding of the function of an institution will have a controlling effect upon the way the institution uses such essentials as (1) general purposes, aims, or objectives; (2) organization; (3) curriculum; (4) operation; (5) evaluation; (6) personnel practices; and (7) professional and public relations.

Those who accept the conception of the function of the elementary school presented in this chapter will need to take the next step, which is to decide what modifications need to be made in the school as it now exists in a particular community so that it may serve a particular group of children more effectively.

TEAMWORK IN EDUCATION IS ESSENTIAL

If the function of the elementary school is to be achieved, it will be necessary to bring about higher and higher levels of teamwork within the school and between it and the home, the church, and all other community agencies and forces. Real teamwork is possible only when there is general agreement on the goal to be achieved. If agreement can be reached on the point that it is the job of the school to *guide every child to have the living and learning experiences that will enable him to behave as the best possible citizen at every successive stage of his development*, then it will be necessary for those who work in or are associated with the elementary school to be continuous students of the child and his society. Effective, functional teamwork must bring about a partnership between the school and the community that will promote and interpret studies of children and studies of society that make the best possible program of living and learning experiences for boys and girls.

SUMMARY

In this chapter an attempt has been made to forecast the role of the elementary school during the second half of the twentieth century. This role differs from that of the first half of the

century because of social and economic changes that are expected to affect greatly all aspects of human life, thereby necessitating concomitant changes in the basic unit of our system of public education. *These changes will not be likely to affect the fundamental truths on which the American social order rests; namely, the beliefs in the rights of the individual to enjoy life, liberty, the pursuit of happiness, orderly government, and spiritual and moral values.*

The function of the elementary school is to develop in every child a love and appreciation for the heritage of the rights and privileges guaranteed by our form of government and to help him acquire the abilities and skills needed in performing the duties of a worthy citizen. These benefits to the individual can be assured only through an elementary school that is conceived and operated as a laboratory of living and learning.

The elementary school must strive to improve the behavior of its developing citizens and the society in which they live. As a laboratory of living it must abolish intolerance and cultivate true democracy. It must provide learning experiences through which the child will acquire better than ever before the fundamental abilities, attitudes, and skills needed by the individual and through which he will be able under wise guidance to practice the arts of group living.

If these results are to be accomplished for the individual, the school must exemplify in its operation the best that is known in the practice of democratic processes and procedures. This requires successful teamwork within the school and between and among the agencies and forces of the school, the home, the church, and the community. Through reciprocal co-operation on the part of all, the elementary school should achieve its function in the preparation of the young for worthy citizenship in our democratic social order.

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The Social Background of the Child

THE MODERN SCHOOL IS CONFRONTED WITH far greater problems than schools of former times. Sweeping changes in the social order caused by rapid changes in occupations and in physical environment have resulted in great institutional changes, all of which affect the social background of the school child. To appreciate the influences of the changes on the child, one needs only to contrast the background of preschool experiences of a child at the beginning of the present century with the experiences of the average child of similar age today. In this period of time, mechanical inventions, methods of communication, ways of travel, and standards of living have undergone virtually revolutionary changes. Although child nature has probably remained unchanged, the social heritage of the child is so different today from what it was at the beginning of the century that the problems of the school cannot be solved by the curriculum and the methods of instruction of fifty years ago.

It should therefore be very obvious that the modern school must fully understand the social background of the child. There is danger that the school may take this background for granted. This is especially true in the case of the pupil on ad-

mission to kindergarten or to the first primary grade. All too many teachers still regard the entering pupil as a novice in learning or a mere beginner, when as a matter of fact he may have a broad background of learning experiences that render his transition to school very simple if the school is what it ought to be.

Through his experiences as a member of a family and as a resident of a neighborhood or community, the child has acquired ways of reacting to existing controls. The controls may not be fully understood but they nevertheless tend to regulate his behavior. He has learned either with or without explanation or instruction that the controls cannot be disregarded with impunity.

It becomes the task of the school to make the controls meaningful to the child. Acquiring understanding of the social order through contacts with social institutions is an important part of his education. To the extent that he acquires this understanding he is socialized or educated; to the extent that he doesn't he is unsociable and uneducated.

EARLIEST SOCIAL EXPERIENCE OF THE CHILD

As indicated in the foregoing section, the child's earliest experiences are acquired as a member of his family. That he is an important member is demonstrated from the time he is a few hours old. Parents may have to modify their habits very decidedly because of the addition of this new member, who at first is entirely dependent upon them. Older brothers or sisters, if any, are also compelled to alter their ways of living as a result of the coming of the new member. The child in turn is influenced and changed by the family. In course of time, the personality of the child will reflect the characteristics of the family as he acquires experiences through his membership.

Family experiences may prove to be either assets or liabilities to the child on admission to school. For example, he may have to overcome bad language habits formed in the home before he can meet the standards of oral and written expression

expected by the school. On the other hand, the spoken language of the home may have been so good that he experiences little difficulty with the art of expression in school. To illustrate further, the members of the family may be irritants to one another and the home environment may be one of dissension and conflict. This will probably be reflected by the child in school relationships where it makes for contention and lack of co-operation. Thus, the work of the teacher and the child's relations with other pupils are influenced and partly determined by the heritage of the home.

Successful education requires that the teacher obtain as much knowledge and understanding as possible of the family background of her pupils in order to plan their learning experiences and to regulate their living as members of a school group. Some of this background of family influence is acquired by the teachers at the time the child enters school. It is increased subsequently through home visitation, personal contacts with parents at school meetings, and cumulative school records.

The task of the teacher is complicated by the lack of, or simplified by the possession of, knowledge of the social background of the child. For the child, too, the transition from home to school sometimes is a major crisis in his life. This is likely to be the case when the climate of the home is easy, friendly, and informal and that of the school is forbidding, cold, formal, and regimented. Adjustment to the radical change may result in frustration and insecurity. On the contrary, the crisis is minimized or completely eliminated when the climate of home and school are much the same. Adjustment then is simple and easily effected.

THE SOCIAL CAPITAL OF THE CHILD

Regardless of the value of the child's preschool experiences, they are part of his social capital.¹ This cannot be ignored by

¹ The accumulated social habits, customs, traditions, and institutional experiences of the individual comprise his social capital.

the school, because the mental life of the child cannot be understood apart from the social environment in which he lives.

Private schools may choose the children with whom they prefer to work on the basis of their social capital. Not so with the public school. It must take the child as he comes and seek to provide experiences through which he can develop the capacities that he possesses.

From the point of view of the school, the social capital of the child consists of the knowledge, habits, attitudes, and skills that he has acquired from his home, play groups, church, work experience, and community resources. These are largely acquired informally through listening, observing, imitating, and participating, although occasionally some direct instruction may be involved.

SOCIAL CAPITAL ACQUIRED FROM THE HOME

Before a child enters school most of his time has been spent in the home or its immediate environment. Some children are fortunate enough to have their experiences broadened through travel with their parents and through visiting with relatives. If the home has been co-operative, there should be few conflicts in making adjustments to school. Many of the habits that the school desires the child to form will very likely have been established at home. He will be polite, considerate, obliging, prompt in meeting assignments, co-operative, and obedient. The learnings of the home make intelligible to the child many of the activities of the school.

Because homes vary greatly in their patterns of living, children on coming to school will also vary greatly in their social capital. Some homes may be antagonistic toward the school. Hence, the children who come from such homes may be unco-operative, unfriendly, and resentful toward the school. The social capital, such as it is, will be a handicap and a liability to the school in its efforts to change the child. In time a child coming from this type of home should yield to the sympathetic

consideration shown him in school and develop different social attitudes. Changes effected in him may in turn bring about changes in his home.

Another type of home occasionally found is indifferent to the ideals and objectives of the school. Children are sent to school to relieve the home of its burden of child care. The attitude of this type of home is neither co-operative nor hostile—just apathetic. In some instances, both parents have to work to keep the home solvent. These parents as far as possible abdicate their responsibilities for their children in favor of the school.

Between the co-operative and the indifferent homes there are many variants, and between the indifferent and the hostile there are also varying attitudes. Thus, the child is virtually a victim of the stock of social ideals and experiences that constitute the background of his future educational growth and development. His progress in school will be influenced by the social background provided by his home.

As already mentioned, the ability of a child to communicate with his teacher and classmates is determined very largely by the home. If his vocabulary is restricted because of low standards of communication in the home, his ability to receive instruction in the language arts will be undeveloped. A program of socialization may have to be carried on in the school before the child is ready for instruction in reading, writing, and spelling. Conversely, another child may come to school with well-established language habits. He knows that words are symbols of ideas and that a group of properly selected words convey a thought. Even though he cannot read, he may have a wide selection of books that he has come to enjoy from hearing them read by parents and other members of his family. A strong motivation for learning to read exists. *In some cases, the child may have even partially acquired the ability to read, to spell, or to write before his admission to school. In such cases his adjustment to the work of the school is rapid because of the social heritage already possessed.*

The importance of a rich background of experiences to

school work at any grade level is recognized by an increasing number of parents who strive to make a positive contribution to the education of their children. These homes provide their children the advantages of well-selected libraries, radio, television, home workshops, and the like, and the parents seek to acquire an understanding of child growth and development as a means of directing and supervising home learning experiences.

The social attitudes of a child on admission to school either accelerate or retard his education. The task of the school is also simplified or complicated by the attitudes of the child not only toward school but also toward other children and the social order. In brief, the potentialities of a child as a subject for education are largely determined by his home.

CAPITAL ACQUIRED FROM PLAY GROUPS

The child is almost helpless until he acquires the ability to walk. Prior to walking, he is dependent on the family for all his needs. When he learns to walk, he soon begins to assert his independence. The exploration of his home environment then takes place very rapidly. An open door or gate makes it possible for him to enlarge the horizon of his experience to the fullest extent possible.

Not long after his power of locomotion is acquired he begins to discover other children in his neighborhood. After this, keeping him confined to the home becomes increasingly difficult. The relaxation of parental vigilance for a moment results in his escape to continue his explorations and to establish play relationship with others of his kind.

New experiences are enjoyed and new social capital is soon gained. Its educational value, however, is determined by the character of the play group and the conditions under which play is carried on. Habits will be quickly formed. Some will be desirable; others will be undesirable.

Knowledge of the play groups in a community is therefore essential to the fullest understanding of the child on admission

to school. If the activities of these groups have been unrestricted by parents and unsupervised by other agencies, the habits of the child may be expected to be those of the play groups with which he has associated. The task of the teacher in adjusting the child to the procedures of the school will be determined in part by the character of the play habits that he has formed.

Play with other children of similar age proves pleasurable experience and possesses socializing values. It is a normal and natural activity of child life. For this reason, its regulation and control are desirable. Because of the difficulty of providing suitable play activities in the home in urban communities, park and playground authorities seek to acquire and to develop neighborhood plots for the use of younger children. The individual play of a child, although necessary, does not possess the socializing values of group play. Because of this, the child in the one-child family often presents greater problems to the school in adjustment than the child who comes from a family in which there are two or more children. Because of the social values of directed play, children who have been privileged to attend nursery school or kindergarten before entering school usually are better socialized than are children who have not had such experience.

SOCIAL CAPITAL ACQUIRED THROUGH INFLUENCES OF THE CHURCH

Although public education in the United States has been generally secularized, many children come under the influence of the church before they enter school. Through the interests of parents in the church, children become participants in Sunday School and in other church activities from the time they are old enough to enroll in the nursery school, kindergarten, or primary department of the church of the parents' choice. Participation in these activities provides socializing experiences that influence the personality of the child. Because the public school teachers often serve as instructors in church schools,

they frequently meet with children who will enter public school classes or who have already enrolled in the public schools.

The influence of the child's church experience should not be overlooked in public education. If the experience has been significant to the child, he has probably developed some moral and spiritual values of considerable worth in his subsequent education. Loyalties to home and church can be expanded into loyalties to school and community.

SOCIAL CAPITAL ACQUIRED THROUGH CONTACTS WITH BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

The business and industrial enterprises of a community often provide educational resources of great value to the schools. Many parents of children earn their livelihood through employment in business establishments or in industries of the community in which they live. Their children hear the problems and the services of these firms discussed almost daily in the homes. Their experiences are thereby enriched, and they go to school with a background of knowledge and understanding that possesses educational value. This background is important as a point of departure in instruction and as frequently providing related resources in some of the curriculum areas of the school. To overlook the experiences incidentally acquired from the business and industrial life of the community is an educational error. It makes for isolation in the school, a danger to be carefully avoided.

SOCIAL CAPITAL ACQUIRED THROUGH WORK EXPERIENCE

The value of work experience as a part of the social background of children is generally recognized although such experience is seldom provided in urban homes. The chores that even young children perform in rural homes have values in preparing them to accept responsibility and to profit from the learning experiences that the chores provide. The performance of family tasks co-operatively planned with parents furnishes

for both younger and older children learning experiences that frequently give meaning to school work. This kind of experience obtained by pupils outside the school supplements and enriches the learning experiences of the school.

The danger of exploiting children through overwork is no longer very great, although there are still parents in some communities who do not realize the hazards of child labor. The effect of work, and especially of the wrong kind of work, may prove harmful to health, hygiene, and physical and mental development, if carried to the point where interest is lost and monotony is allowed to develop.

SOCIAL ASSETS AND LIABILITIES OF THE CHILD'S COMMUNITY

Many school communities are composed of different nationality groups. The traditions of the people of some of these groups present serious educational problems. Attitudes toward education, school attendance, classroom discipline, and respect for personality are reflected in the behavior of the children when they enter school. The problem for the school is one of changing not only the attitudes of the children but also indirectly those of the parents. Language differences may render communication difficult. However, if the school is made a center of community life, changes in attitudes will gradually occur.

The mores of parents in the typically American groups differ decidedly from the mores of the groups with marked foreign backgrounds; the values attributed to education and schooling may also vary considerably among the native American groups. Differences can usually be accounted for by social background of parents and economic conditions of the families. Because the children invariably reflect their home backgrounds in their attitudes toward school, it is essential that the school know the social composition of the adult population of the community or neighborhood served if it is to cope successfully with the problems created by the inherited traditions and customs of its pupils.

Population data giving the language background of the fam-

ilies of the school district, the occupational status of fathers, and the educational levels attained by parents should prove very helpful to the school principal and his teachers. If the professional and mercantile classes predominate in a school district, very different problems are presented from those that are found where the population consists of unskilled workers. The children of the first group of parents will usually come to school with better cultural backgrounds. They are generally more amenable to discipline and have formed better recreational and leisure-time habits. In schools enrolling a predominance of such children, the teachers will usually find it less necessary to provide socializing experiences and to supervise closely school play and recreation. In communities of the less privileged homes, the school may have to provide for the children services neglected in the homes. Furthermore, the services of attendance officers and school social workers may have to be supplied in greater amount and the teaching program modified in the light of child needs.

Studies show that the children whose parents are engaged in professional services or in mercantile enterprises generally make better progress in their school subjects than the children whose parents are manual tradesmen. For the latter type of children, curriculum adjustments by the teachers and the adaptation of teaching methods to the needs of the pupils may have to be made. Differences in the social attitudes of the children will present problems for teachers and school administrators. The offerings of extra-class activities will also have to undergo expansion in order to challenge the interests of the children.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHER CREATED BY SOCIAL BACKGROUND OF THE CHILD

Because the teacher must begin the education of the child with the capital stock of knowledge, habits, attitudes, and ideals possessed when he comes to school, the major problem of the teacher is to acquire knowledge and understanding of

the social background as quickly as possible. This problem would not be so great if the teacher had only a single pupil. Teachers generally have many pupils, often ranging from twenty-five to forty-five and not infrequently averaging from thirty-five to forty. Although the individual pupil should always be the unit of instruction, this is not always possible because of large enrollments. Careful study of the individual child often becomes a deferred goal to be realized only gradually and many times not at all.

Because of the difficulty experienced by teachers in acquiring knowledge and understanding of the social background of individual pupils through direct contact with them in the classroom, the modern school has been compelled to develop methods of assisting teachers in the accomplishment of this task. Some of the more important of these methods will be considered.

PREADMISSION CONFERENCES WITH PARENTS AND CHILDREN

In the case of children entering kindergarten or Grade 1 for the first time, parents are expected to accompany their children to school on the first day and to provide the information for the school records that is required. Inasmuch as school principals usually know in advance of the opening day of school the children in the attendance area who are expected to enroll, brochures of information are sent to parents describing enrollment procedures and acquainting them with the nature of the personal information regarding children that parents or guardians are expected to supply. This information usually consists of birth certificate, number of younger or older brothers or sisters, vaccination and childhood disease records, place of residence, test scores if any have been given, and the like.

Some school systems have a round-up week prior to the opening of school when parents of beginning pupils are requested to come to the school and register their children. This practice enables the school to provide the teacher with essential data regarding prospective pupils prior to the opening day of school.

If possible, a preadmission conference between the teacher and parents should be arranged. This enables the teacher to begin school with a considerable stock of social information regarding the pupils who are known to be eligible to enroll. The teacher then has more time to confer on the opening day of school with parents who were unable to comply with the preadmission requirements.

CUMULATIVE RECORDS

In most school systems, some kind of cumulative records of pupil progress are kept. These records may consist only of data recorded on permanent cards that summarize the personal information available regarding a pupil; the ratings given at marking periods in the basic habits, attitudes, and skills; the marks received on standardized tests; and the percentile rank on scholastic aptitude or general intelligence tests administered by the school system. Analysis of the cumulative records gives the teacher a general impression of the characteristics, abilities, and disabilities of the pupils assigned to her for instruction. On the basis of such information, the teacher can plan learning experiences and provide assimilative materials for the use of pupils more effectively than when the information is not known.

Some school systems also provide cumulative pocket-file folders in which are assembled various kinds of data that cannot be transcribed on the cumulative record cards. These data enable the teacher to make a more searching analysis of the pupil and his school progress. Data may be included in the folders, which furnish information regarding the socioeconomic status of the pupil's home and the community influences to which the pupil has been exposed.

Teachers in such school systems as those mentioned are able to begin their work at the opening of a new term with considerable knowledge of the social backgrounds of their pupils. Furthermore, when pupils are transferred during the year from one school to another within the system, records may also be

transferred. As a result, the admission of a new pupil to a school is not like receiving a total stranger, but rather one who comes with credentials and a personal history.

STUDY OF CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

The understanding of children by teachers is no longer entrusted to intuition. Professional preparation for teaching includes the study of child growth and development. In addition to general concepts that all teachers should acquire, it is essential that special preparation be made by the individual teacher for dealing with children at the maturity level at which he or she expects to teach.

Teachers in service whose preparation in child growth and development has been neglected should seek workshop experience in this field, either during summer vacations or as an extension activity during the regular school year. Such work is basic to the understanding of children.

Parents desiring to acquire an understanding of their children are availing themselves in increasing numbers of the opportunity to participate with teachers in extension courses and workshops in the study of child growth and development. The evidence indicates that through such study both the teachers and the parents have experienced broadening of knowledge regarding children and deepening of their insights into child behavior.

One of the special values received by teachers from such study has been their increased grasp of the importance of "social background" in the instruction and management of children. Secondary school teachers as well as elementary school teachers have found the study of child growth and development essential to their professional improvement.

MEMBERSHIP IN PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

Inasmuch as the education of the child takes place in the home as well as in the school, it is of major importance that a working relationship between parents and teachers be estab-

lished. The establishment of this relationship is a primary function of the parent-teacher association. The program of the association should be such as to enlist the wholehearted co-operation of parents with teachers. If, as a result of the program, knowledge of child growth and development is extended and understanding of the needs of children is achieved on the part of both teachers and parents, the child will be the beneficiary.

Through meetings with parents the teacher should acquire first-hand knowledge of the social backgrounds of children. This, with the co-operation and support of parents, should enable the teacher better to understand the children and to relate the school work with the experiences and activities of the homes. It is a serious matter for the pupil when school and home are unco-operative or when there is no direct communication between teacher and parents.

The increasing interest of teachers and parents in association work is evidence of the growing understanding of the reciprocal roles of home and school in education. That these roles should be properly integrated is unquestioned by those who understand how children grow and develop.

ASSISTANCE OF ATTENDANCE OFFICERS AND SCHOOL SOCIAL WORKERS

The compulsory retention of children in school until they are sixteen years of age has created many problems for the schools. To assist in the solution of these problems, intermediary officers to function between the school and the homes have been employed in most urban school systems and in counties with many rural schools. These officers visit the homes of pupils who are maladjusted in school and have become problems in education and management. The cause of the maladjustment is frequently found to be unfavorable home and neighborhood influences or the social background of the pupils. The influences on pupils reported by the school are investigated by the attendance officer or social worker and conferences are

then arranged with the particular pupil's teacher in order that the teacher may be fully informed regarding the influences that appear to contribute to the maladjustment of the individual in school. The officer in question may also arrange a conference between the home and school or acquaint the parents with the suggestions offered by the school regarding a closer co-operation than has prevailed in the past. At any rate, through the mediation of the attendance officer or social worker, the school principal and teacher or teachers involved are able to undertake the solution of their problem with a background of information and understanding probably not possessed before.

Occasionally the influences of home or neighborhood may be so bad that environmental changes must be effected before the school can have any hope of improving the pupil. If other child-serving agencies must be brought into the picture to assist the school in its efforts, the attendance officer or school social worker will serve as the intermediary agent.

These officers have thoroughly justified their positions in modern schools in assisting principals and teachers to acquire a better understanding of the social forces that operate in conflict with or in opposition to the purposes of the school. Some schools have attempted to solve these problems by requiring teachers to visit the homes of their pupils and by encouraging parents to visit the school and to confer with the teacher or teachers of their children. Many teachers are not qualified to undertake the responsibility of home visiting. Furthermore, they do not have time to discharge their school obligations and engage in systematic home visitation.

The addition of attendance officers or social workers to the professional staffs of school systems has resulted in the improvement of the quality of education. Teachers understand their pupils better because of the knowledge of home and neighborhood conditions acquired from these personnel officers and because of the co-operative relations established between school and homes.

ASSISTANCE DERIVED FROM SCHOOL CLINICS

School systems in large and middle-sized cities usually maintain clinics for the study of problem pupils. These clinics administer tests, make case studies, diagnose difficulties, and give advice as to remedial measures. Services of the type indicated are too specialized for regular classroom teachers. The teachers can, however, benefit from the advice that the clinicians give.

The great variation in the causes of maladjustment among pupils has brought about the introduction of many types of clinical services in the schools. Among the most common of these services are (1) psychological examination of pupils to determine the mental capacity of pupils and to diagnose special abilities and disabilities; (2) psychiatric study of serious problem cases to ascertain their motivation and emotional strains; and (3) remedial reading to help children overcome disabilities that prevent the reading of materials expected of them in their regular class work.

Many of the difficulties that the specialists are called upon to solve have their origin in the background of preschool and out-of-school experiences of the pupils. By probing into this heritage of experiences, the specialists find the cause of the abnormal behavior of pupils and are able to suggest the remedy to be applied.

In some cases home or neighborhood conditions must be improved; in other cases the school must modify its materials and methods to meet the needs of the pupils concerned. Changing the school to meet pupil needs was an unknown procedure in earlier times. Today the good school is willing to undergo changes if thereby it can facilitate the growth and development of its pupils. The advice of the specialists is essential in adapting schools to pupil needs. It is also essential in helping parents to understand their children and to modify practices that have seriously affected the behavior of their children.

THE PROBLEM OF THE SCHOOL

The problem of the school is, of course, to ascertain and to utilize the social capital of each pupil as resource material in

his education. This does not happen by chance. It must be made available to the teacher who bears the large share of the responsibility for the education of the pupil. In addition the school may have to provide assistance for the teacher in acquiring knowledge and understanding of the social background and even in the development of finesse in its use.

Modern institutions that prepare individuals for teaching have a responsibility for familiarizing the teacher with the importance of the preschool background of the child and its bearing on his subsequent education. Many teachers in our schools will not have had the benefit of such training. For these, in-service training must be provided through supervision, extension courses in child growth and development, and workshops organized and conducted to assist teachers in broadening their knowledge of children and in making appropriate use of the wealth of resources in education to be secured from the study of their preschool experiences.

SUMMARY

A child cannot be fully understood apart from the social environment in which he has grown up and in which he lives. This is a fundamental principle in teaching and management. It compels those who seek to direct the growth and development of children to familiarize themselves with the social backgrounds of the children.

The earliest social experiences of a child are acquired in his family. Through intimate face-to-face association with the members of his family, he acquires the ways of thinking and acting of a primary group. It does not follow that the merging of his individuality with the common life and purposes of his family will result in complete harmony and agreement. Competition that permits self-assertion and rivalry between members is certain to exist, but the competition is generally regulated through the socialization that has taken place in living the life of the family group.

The child on admission to nursery, kindergarten, or school comes as a representative of the family to which he belongs.

The habits already formed and his attitudes and ideals are mirrored images of those of his family group. The knowledge that he possesses will also reflect the cultural background of his home. *The school must take cognizance of this social capital of the child if it is to direct his future growth and development.* It must also know something of the child's social capital that has been acquired through his association with neighborhood play groups, through his contacts with the church and its auxiliary agencies, and through the informational resources of the community or communities in which the child's early years have been spent.

The accumulated habits, attitudes, knowledge, and skills of the child on admission to school are the capital stock with which his systematic education begins. Before this time, his capital stock has been accumulated casually and informally. Through observing, listening to, and imitating the members of his family and other individuals encountered in his usually restricted life, he has acquired language as a medium of communication, the use of simple tools, and the social attitudes of his closest associates. Important knowledge basic to education, such as the number system, the alphabet, and the social customs of his primary group, has been acquired in varying degrees.

Differences in social heritage make each individual a special problem in education. Each individual must be regarded as a unit in instruction and management even though many individuals must be handled in class groups of varying sizes. Satisfactory results cannot be realized merely through group instruction or through adapting the media of instruction to a so-called average for the class group. *Common elements in learning may be identified and learning experiences believed to be fundamental and equally valuable to all may be planned for the group, but differentiation for individuals must always be provided.*

Because individuals differ so greatly in their social backgrounds, *the problem of the school becomes one of acquiring*

knowledge and understanding of the social capital of each pupil as quickly as possible. This is a task of great magnitude but one not impossible of accomplishment. Contacts with the home must be established through preadmission conferences in which basic information is acquired and co-operative relations are established. Important data are recorded on cumulative record cards and in cumulative folders as the child advances through school. These data are made available for those who accept responsibility for the education of the child.

A literature on child growth and development has been developed that can become the property of the teacher who desires to acquire it. Through preschool and extension courses and workshops, the knowledge of the teacher may be extended and his or her insights sharpened.

Other methods of gaining access to the social background of the child, such as contacts with parents in parent-teacher associations, the employment of attendance officers and school social workers, and the utilization of specialists as staff officers to study and to diagnose the abilities, disabilities, and emotional disturbances of problem pupils, have been adopted in many school systems.

The sum total of all the services described in foregoing paragraphs should result in closing the gap between the preschool background of the child and the school. Attempting to direct the education of a child without knowledge of his social capital is much like the blind trying to lead the blind. The possibility of successful education for an individual increases with the knowledge that the school has of the individual's social background.

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The Nature of the Elementary School Child

IT IS A NEAR TRUISM TO STATE THAT the school exists primarily for the education, care, and training of children. Few people question the validity of the statement, even though some might maintain that the school is operated also as a self-protective institution by adults. The real objective of the elementary school, however, is always the rendering of service required by the children enrolled and within its care.

The proper care of the children, therefore, must be the most important single duty of those concerned with the operation of the elementary school in a democratic social order. No matter how well the principal may administer the other duties of his position, or how well teachers and other school workers may perform their multitudinous tasks, the work of the school is considered a failure unless it cares properly for its pupil personnel. The welfare of pupils in any given school thus becomes the basic requirement in organization, administration, teaching, and working in the school; and whatever is done, whatever changes are contemplated in administration, teach-

ing or auxiliary services must be evaluated in terms of the probable effect on the pupils enrolled.

The curriculum undergoes modification in the light of pupil needs. Likewise, school plants are designed, and physical equipment and supplies are provided and controlled by the welfare and interests of the pupils. If changes in lighting, in size of rooms, in seating and furniture, or in any one of a number of physical factors are considered, they are made in order that the development of the children can be assured. Actually, most of the duties of all the workers in an elementary school are determined in no small measure by the well-being of the pupils. In fact, pupils should always occupy the focus of attention of the principal, teachers, and patrons of a school at all times in planning the work and in formulating the program of the institution.

This chapter will consider the nature of the elementary school child from the standpoint of the physical and mental stages of his development. It will also point out differences between boys and girls, the importance of good physical and mental health, and the significance of understanding a child's basic needs.

Physical growth. The school life of the child is affected very materially by the factors that influence his physical growth. The child enters the elementary school at the traditional age of five or six, usually five if the school has a kindergarten and most urban schools have kindergartens, otherwise the first grade at the age of six. By the time a child is five he has entered a period of slower growth than in the years immediately preceding. Girls are usually a little more developed physically than boys at this age. The child of five usually has good general motor control, although the large muscles are more fully developed than the small ones. Furthermore, by the time the child is five, he is either right- or left-handed. His activities have definite direction; and he can wash, dress, feed, and attend to his toilet needs himself, even though he may require occasional help. He needs plenty of physical activity, and the

followed by a period of rapid growth in height and then growth in weight. It is a period of rapid muscular growth, often attended by uneven growth of different parts of the body. There is much active rough and tumble play, adjustments must be made to the rougher ways of the playground, and adult help is needed to do this without having play become too crude and rough.²

The eyes of the child, so important in school work, also develop during the elementary-school period of physical growth. When the child enters the elementary school, his eyes are not yet mature, there is a tendency to far-sightedness, and the eyes are not ready for close work. By the time the child is eight or nine the eyes are ready for both near and far vision. Near-sightedness often develops in the ninth year. When the pre-adolescent period is reached, the eyes are usually of almost adult size and are ready for close work with less eye strain. Eye-hand co-ordination, poor when the child enters school, becomes good by the age of nine or ten. Training in manual skills, but without pressure, should begin at the age of nine years.

The teeth of the child need attention during his elementary school life. He usually enters elementary school with only temporary dentures but leaves it with most of his permanent teeth. The first permanent teeth, the so-called six-year molars, appear at six; and by the time the child is eight many permanent teeth have appeared after a period of rapidly losing the temporary ones at the age of seven. The first and second bicuspid usually appear when a child is nine, and at this age teeth may need straightening. Schools must often supplement the efforts of homes in securing the proper care of the child's teeth.

Lungs and digestive and circulatory systems also develop during the elementary school period. At six years the heart is usually in a stage of rapid growth, and often at nine the child's heart is especially subject to strain. By the time preadolescence is reached, the lungs and the circulatory and the digestive

² *Ibid.*

systems are almost mature. Poor posture may develop when children are eight or nine, and particular attention must be given to the physical equipment of the school in order that defects may not develop.

The foregoing paragraphs present a brief statement of some of the characteristics of the different stages in the physical development of the elementary school child. The stages must not be thought of as sharply differentiated periods in development but as changes more or less gradual in character. Naturally, the elementary school worker is not able to mark off the life of a child into segments and characterize each one distinctly, because the stages may overlap in many individual cases. The physical characteristics set forth, however, are, in general, true; and the school must recognize the fact that physical changes are taking place and must formulate the school's program accordingly.

Development influenced by sex. Growth of children is influenced by sex. The height and weight of boys and girls vary considerably during the elementary school period. Boys are usually taller than girls up to ten years of age; then the girls outgrow the boys for a period of four or more years. At fourteen usually the boys overtake the girls in height and from that time until final growth is attained considerably excel the girls. Girls often outweigh boys from the eighth to the sixteenth year, after which the boys overtake and pass the girls in weight. Girls not only excel boys physically throughout much of the elementary school period but are considerably more mature than boys in physiological development.

Likewise in anatomical development, as indicated by the ossification ratio determined from the measurements of radiographs of the right hand, the girls are advanced beyond the boys from a year and a half to two years from the age of five to thirteen, at which age girls show a tendency toward completion of skeletal growth, whereas the tendency in boys is not reached until fifteen. Numerous other findings confirm the fact that girls during the elementary school period are considerably

more mature than boys, which is significant in understanding the nature of the elementary school child. At about the age of nine, girls usually forge ahead and may mature as much as two years earlier than boys. In preadolescence, secondary sex characteristics begin to develop and usually earlier in girls than in boys.

Data on school accomplishment, when analyzed, show sex differences of considerable significance. For example, when accomplishment in arithmetic is considered on the age basis, girls excel boys up to the fourteenth year. Other findings indicate superior accomplishment for girls in reading, spelling, writing, and composition, when the data are compared on the basis of age. When the comparison is made on the basis of grade only, the findings show marked variation attributable perhaps to the tendency of boys to fall behind the girls in grade progress and to become overage for grade.

The elementary school, therefore, has the task of planning its program so skillfully that it can meet the needs of both its boys and girls who are approaching puberty, many at the time being in the same grade placement as those who are not. It can not be done without a thorough knowledge and understanding of the physical changes that are taking place. There must be warm, encouraging, friendly relationships between the children and the adult workers in the school so that frank answers can be given to questions about these physiological changes. This is particularly true in the later elementary school years where affection and a sense of humor on the part of adults, without nagging, condemnation, or talking down to the child are essential to wholesome child development.

Development influenced by glandular conditions. In addition to the characteristic differences noted between boys and girls caused by the functioning of sex glands, growth is also influenced by the functioning of some of the ductless glands. Pathological conditions of the thyroid gland result in pathological growth conditions and many attending mental conditions that affect school work. The child, arrested in his growth through

the malfunctioning of the thyroid gland, becomes mentally dull and lifeless; and his growth and development in school cannot go on normally. The pituitary gland, a small, oval, reddish gray vascular body attached to the *infundibulum* of the brain, produces a secretion influencing metabolism in certain of the tissues and organs, especially in connective tissue and bone. Its proper functioning is responsible for normal growth. Other ductless glands also affect the growth of children.

Although no detailed consideration of the physiology of the glands can be given in this volume, attention must be directed to the fact that glandular imbalance influences growth and development very materially and conditions the school program of the child suffering from such imbalance. Growth is accelerated or arrested by the way the glands function; and it seems that science is able to regulate to some extent physical growth through the diet on which a child is nourished. The school worker cannot do much to correct pathological conditions, but he should be cognizant of the importance of the subject, should be able to refer children and their parents to proper medical authorities for examination, and should encourage the remedial measures recommended as necessary to secure the proper physical care of the child.

Stages of psychological development. Just as the foregoing pages indicate various stages in the physical growth of children in the elementary school, so different stages may be noted in the mental and social aspects of their development. The child comes to the kindergarten or first grade more or less stable with a good balance between self-sufficiency and sociality. He is essentially home-centered, capable of some self-criticism and eager and able to carry out some responsibility. He usually knows what he is going to draw before he draws it and thus shows purposiveness and constructiveness. He usually is able to use language well, although some infantile articulation in speech may still be discerned. The child's individuality and lasting traits are beginning to be apparent, and individual differences can already be noted. The kindergarten child is

interested in group activities; and although often noisy and vigorous, his participation in these activities has definite direction.

By the time the child enters the primary grades he is eager to learn, overactive, and easily fatigued; and his whole body is involved in whatever he does. He learns best through active participation. He is often self-assertive, aggressive, competitive, less co-operative than the typical five-year-old, and usually regresses when fatigued. The primary school child has relatively short periods of interest and often has difficulty in making decisions. By the time he enters second grade he is sensitive to the feelings of both his peers and adults and is especially dependent on the approval of adults. The primary child is not very capable of abstract thinking. He learns best in concrete terms and where he can be active while learning. The seven-year-old especially enjoys songs, rhythms, fairy tales, myths, nature stories, comics, radio, and movies. He has some rudimentary understanding of time and money values, is able to assume some responsibility, and often is concerned about right and wrong, although he is often inclined to take small things.

By the time the child enters the third grade, or approximately when he is eight years of age, there is a new awareness of individual differences. He is often careless, noisy, and more argumentative than before, but still alert, friendly, and interested in people. He usually shows more enthusiasm than wisdom and has a higher accident rate. There is also greater capacity for self-evaluation and a much better understanding of time and use of money. The child in the upper primary grades is responsive to more group activities and shows interest in team games and collections of all kinds. At this age gangs begin to appear, and the child's best friends are others of the same sex. There is also a tendency to show allegiance to his peer group rather than to an adult in case of conflicts.

When the child becomes a preadolescent and often as early as the age of nine, his abilities become apparent, and individual differences are distinct and clearly defined. There is a

particularly wide range of individual differences in the maturity levels among the preadolescents with marked differences between boys and girls. There is also a great deal of teasing and antagonism between boy and girl groups with gangs strong and of one sex only, with loyalty to the gang stronger in boys than in girls, even though the memberships in a gang may be of short duration and with changing membership. During these years there are wide disparities in reading ability and less interest in fairy tales and fantasy with an increase in interest in the community and the country and in other countries and peoples. Elementary school workers must recognize that in the years of preadolescence awkwardness, restlessness, and laziness are common as a result of the rapid and uneven growth often found at this time of the child's life. The child approaching adolescence often becomes overcritical, changeable, rebellious, and unco-operative. He has now become fairly independent as a result of having acquired control of language, reading, and other intellectual institutions. He has passed through several years of school discipline and dictation with nearly everything prescribed. In preadolescence the child often seems to organize himself against such an administration, and hence, the period from nine to twelve or thirteen is characterized by some writers as one of self-assertion and individualization. The child is sometimes regarded as antisocial at this period, but he is not inherently antisocial; he is merely lacking in the social development that is expected of him by his elders.

The period of adolescence, involving the years from twelve to fifteen, finds pupils in the seventh or eighth grades; and if these grades are placed in the elementary school, the school must make provision for the peculiar needs of these age groups. During this period, great physical, as well as mental and social, changes take place. Sexual maturity is reached with its accompanying emotional changes, and sometimes it is a period of great glandular imbalance. The adolescent often goes to extremes; he is emotionally unstable with a "know-it-all" attitude. There is great interest in philosophical, ethical, and religious

problems and a search for ideals. The adolescent also asserts his independence from his family and takes definite steps toward adulthood. He is often preoccupied with acceptance by a social group and is eager to make social contacts. There is much self-pity, oversensitiveness, and a fear of ridicule and of being unpopular. The adolescent becomes more or less interested in the opposite sex, tries to make the adjustments that these new associations require, and shows great interest in physical attractiveness. On the elementary school level, girls usually are more interested in boys than boys in girls, a result no doubt of the earlier maturing of the girls. This period is essentially one of socialization with the youth taking the initiative, trying to acquire the social traits and characteristics of adults.

Health a factor in understanding the child. The elementary school child cannot be understood without considering the factor of the child's health. Health of children presents a large problem. Ill-health always constitutes a barrier to normal education. Childhood diseases may impair the sense organs, particularly the eyes and ears, and make learning extremely difficult. As a result of susceptibility to large numbers of childhood diseases, children in the elementary school are continually running the gamut of impairment from the array of diseases that threaten them. In almost every school may be found the victims of infantile paralysis, tuberculosis, rickets, and the like. Although the maiming of the body, of course, is a problem of physical concern, it also in turn creates problems in elementary school education. Lack of proper nutrition may lower the vitality of the child and unfit him for school work. Neglect of health may result in physical suffering, making education difficult. Physicians report that arrest in development is due in many cases to health impairment of one kind or another. Good health, then, becomes an asset to normal education. It is a fundamental objective of education today and should not be ignored or neglected by the school.

A study of absenteeism in Canadian schools made by the

National Committee for School Health Research of the Canadian Education Association* included 15,323 pupils from Grade I through Grade XIII and covered one complete school year. The findings revealed that:

(a) Among urban and rural pupils approximately 50 per cent of the days lost for medical causes was due to upper respiratory infections.

(b) The rate of absence from medical causes did not vary between urban and rural children.

(c) Absences because of communicable diseases was less among urban pupils.

(d) Young pupils, six to nine years of age, had more one-day absences than older pupils, over thirteen years of age.

(e) Pupils six to nine years experienced more absences of one week or longer than the older pupils.

(f) Absences increased steadily from September to March and then receded abruptly to June.

A child's health influences his attendance and his general attitude toward school. If his health is good, the child will be buoyant and optimistic, and will be likely to have a favorable attitude toward school work. The school is thus responsible for conserving health and forming health habits that make for healthy living. Periodic physical inspections of school children are required by law in some states. Teachers should be trained to assist in this work. Immunization is resorted to in order to protect children from hazardous diseases. Observance of quarantine regulations must be followed by the school in order to protect children from many childhood diseases. It is not enough to deal efficiently with pathological conditions among the pupils of a school. Measures must be devised to prevent these conditions. Health instruction must be provided that will result in good health practices, such as care of eyes and ears, proper care of teeth, sleeping in well-ventilated rooms, eating proper kinds of food, and training the emotions and feelings. Some of these problems may be partly solved through serving whole-

* *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. XXXI, No. 8 (April, 1950), p. 375.

some school lunches, properly administering the lunch period, and developing healthy mental attitudes. Mental health, although not a new field, has been found to be of much greater importance than was formerly supposed. Mental health and mental hygiene have grown in importance as a result of the discoveries and teachings of the science of psychiatry. This science has shown that many school failures and most of the problem cases in learning and behavior can be traced to the mental health of the child or of the adults with whom he comes in contact.

The elementary school must, therefore, consider the mental health of its children if it is to understand them fully, and it must make provisions for improving mental hygiene as well as physical hygiene. The facilities of child guidance clinics and the services of psychiatrists, psychologists, and school social workers are essential in gaining a full understanding of the child and in developing a good mental health program. It is a well-known fact that a great number of school problem cases are caused by poor teacher and parent guidance. To understand the child, therefore, the school worker must study the adults with whom the child comes in contact to discover many of the causes of the problems arising within a school. Furthermore, unless parents and teachers work together, unless the school is interpreted to the home and the home background of children is studied by the school, it will be impossible to understand thoroughly the elementary school child.

Understanding growth patterns. The need for considering the total development and personality and for adopting a philosophy of growth becomes urgent in working with children who differ widely from their associates. All children can be understood better if their total growth patterns are studied and are considered in relation to their work in school. Olson and his associates of the University of Michigan have developed and defined units for the description of growth in children.⁴

⁴Willard C. Olson and Byron O. Hughes, *Tables for the Translation of Physical Measurements into Age Units* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Elementary School, 1947).

The age principle has been used by them to transmute data collected in many types of units in a manner that will permit simultaneous description of the patterning and direction of a child's growth. They have devised a manual that gives investigators of children's growth an age equivalent for any given height in inches, weight in pounds, number of teeth erupted, and strength of grip. Manuals for educational and mental tests give the age equivalents for performance scores. The results of periodic measures after conversion can be plotted so as to give a general over-all picture of the growth for the child as a whole. For some purposes an average of all growth data can be calculated at a point in time. The resultant value has been named the organismic age.⁵ In constructing the graphs that illustrate the growth patterns of children, chronological ages are plotted along the base lines and the growth ages along the vertical axes. Gifted children, in general, tend to be characterized throughout their life history by a highly individuated mentality. Their physical attributes tend, on the whole, to lie above the averages typical for children in general but are less highly developed than the intellect, which so often constitutes the chief basis for the identification of gifted children.⁶ As contrasted with gifted children, the mentally retarded child will, in general, have a mental age as one of the least individualized aspects of the total growth, while other measurements will tend to regress toward the mean line.⁷ Total maturity of mentally retarded children as described in their growth patterns adds significantly to an understanding of the potentiality of the retarded. In the study of the growth patterns of all children, it is apparent that growth tends to be unified and school achievement is a function of total growth. In general, bright children are accelerated along all lines, while dull children are retarded

⁵ Willard C. Olson and Byron O. Hughes, "The Concept of Organismic Age," *Journal of Education Research*, XXXV (March, 1942), 525-27.

⁶ Willard C. Olson and Byron O. Hughes, "Growth of Exceptional Children," *Forty-Ninth Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 63.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 68.

correspondingly. Furthermore, children who do well in the primary grades usually do well in the later grades, and children who learn slowly and with difficulty in early school years have the same difficulty in later school years.

Development of children's interests is more in accord with growth ages than with chronological ages. Behavior often tends to be immature for the chronological age of a child, although not for the growth age. Growth patterns also reveal diversities in level and rate of growth. Often children should be treated in the school as if they were actually younger than their chronological ages, and the necessity for such treatment is readily apparent when the total growth pattern is available. Growth patterns also reveal interesting data of value in directing the social relationships of children.*

A knowledge of the whole child, a pattern revealing his total growth, and the application of modern, multivariable longitudinal techniques to the growth of children are necessary for the professional worker in the modern elementary school if he desires a complete understanding of the child. Achievement in school tends to be a function of the total growth of the child and the importance of setting standards in terms of the individual growing child rather than in terms of averages is clearly indicated. Because a child's personality emerges in the interaction between the potentialities of the individual and the requirements of his environment, a sensitive regard for both is essential. Each child should be assisted in the elementary school in growing according to his stage of maturation without deprivation or forcing in an environment and by a process that also supplies a social direction to his achievements.* If the growth patterns of children are known and studied, the elementary school worker can make provision for adapting the school's program to the particular stage of development in which the child is found. At each stage, the behavior of a child is directly influenced by his development and certain charac-

* *Ibid.*, pp. 78-80.

* *Ibid.*, pp. 80-81.

teristic reactions and special needs can be discerned. If, from a study of growth patterns, the worker knows what may rightly be expected, the worker will not make the mistake of regarding as wrong, or abnormal, behavior that is perfectly normal for the child's organismic age and general level of development.

The nature of the child's basic human needs. No elementary school child can be understood unless one understands and takes into account the basic human needs. Children grow best when their basic needs—for security, sympathetic understanding, and success—are being met, both at home and at school. All children must become well-adjusted members of the family and the community, must participate in the activities of the work-a-day world, and must assume responsibilities in keeping with their capacities as citizens in a democracy. The Educational Policies Commission has identified four groups of objectives or educational needs that relate, respectively, to the child himself, to his membership in the family or community group, to his activities as a producer and consumer, and to his life as a citizen. The commission defines these four groups as the objectives of (a) self-realization, (b) human relationship, (c) economic efficiency, and (d) civic responsibility.¹⁰ Every one of these applies to some need that must be fulfilled. Self-realization is a universal need, and the differences among people lie in the way in which that self-realization is expressed. Everyone must have satisfying human relationships. Economic efficiency should be attained to the degree appropriate to each individual's interests and ability. Civic responsibility belongs to all without exception. One other aim of education might well be added to these four, that of satisfying spiritual experiences for each child. For handicapped children, particularly, the inner life is often the major source of personal enrichment. Education in the elementary school must help lay the foundation for the realization of satisfying experiences to meet basic human needs if children are to be understood fully.

¹⁰ Educational Policies Commission, *Policies for Education in American Democracy* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1946), p. 189.

The basic human needs may be broken up into many different needs of children and youth. Many of these may not be ignored if the elementary school tries to secure a healthy personality development of its pupils. When needs are thwarted, serious learning difficulties are created. To understand children, these needs must be studied and met. The school cannot meet all these needs. However, the elementary school is the most strategic agency for taking the leadership in meeting them. Among some of these needs are (a) the need for a feeling of belonging, (b) the need for a sense of achievement, (c) the need for economic security, (d) the need for freedom from fear and aggression, (e) the need for love and affection, (f) the need for social understanding, and (g) the need for a share in making decisions. To understand children, schools must look at their total program in terms of how it is influencing the personality development of its pupils. A school program that reduces frustration in its pupils not only fosters healthy personality development but also is likely to experience greater success in its attempts to teach the traditionally important subject matter and skills.

Children want friends, and they want to be friendly. A school program that aims to foster healthy personality development will be sensitive to this need and will try to help children in their efforts to meet this need. Children like to learn. They like to learn how to do new things, and they like to learn how to do them well. They like to feel that they are achieving and that they are receiving praise and recognition for their achievements. Children like an economy of abundance. They like to be free from worries about money, clothes, books, food, medical care, and the like. Sometimes a school program thwarts this need by making excessive demands on children and their parents. Children do not like to be afraid. They do not like the feeling of being pushed around, and they do not like to have great feelings of anxiety and inadequacy. This does not mean that they must never have any fears, because they must recognize the values of the fear of physical dangers and the fear

of doing wrong; but the school should avoid creating in children persistent and deep-seated fears that paralyze intelligent action. Most children are expected to realize the need for love and affection in the home, although the school sometimes has to help the child who feels that his parents do not love him. Children are interested in social problems and particularly those that affect them. In the upper grades of the elementary school, they want explanations for such things as war, unemployment, poverty, crime, depressions, and broken homes. They seek for beliefs and values by which to guide their actions. Children do not like to be told constantly what they are to do. They like to have some choices in what they must do. They like to feel that their opinions are important and that their judgment can be trusted in many matters. Understanding these needs of children that affect personality help one to understand the elementary school child. As schools become more skillful in meeting basic needs of children in the classroom, there will be fewer "children with problems," fewer tempers and tempests, and there will be more peace in which to carry on the great adventures in learning. Furthermore, the total school program for all-around development of children results in more learning, greater gains in understandings and skills, and in the child's ability to apply them.

Understanding differences in children. Although all children follow essentially the same sequence of growth, no two children, even in the same family, are alike in the way in which they pass through this sequence. Children vary in many respects—physically, mentally, temperamentally, socially, in experiential background, and in ability to learn. They vary in the rate of learning, and for that reason some pupils are able to advance more rapidly than others. Too often in schools that still operate under the "lock step" kind of administration, the rate of learning is completely ignored. Nor do children always grow evenly in all aspects of their development. For example, a child may develop rapidly mentally so that he seems far ahead of his actual age group, and yet at the same time he may

be immature in his social growth. Children also vary in their power to reproduce ideas. This fact may call for variation in the methods of presentation and in the frequency of review in the case of certain individuals, because learning does not proceed readily and easily for them. Again, children will differ in their attitudes toward learning. Some are easily motivated; others appear to resist learning; and between these two extremes are found all kinds of variations in mental attitude toward learning.

It is the business of the school to discover the differences in children and to provide for them. Children should be their best selves and not copies of others. Children may learn from others, but that does not mean copying others. Tests, measures, and other devices have been useful in helping determine the kinds and range of individual differences so that the procedures of the school can be planned and carried out in accordance with resultant implications. When the school attempts to standardize education and to fit every child into the same mold, education of the individual is often impossible. The child's own peculiar needs must be taken into consideration at all stages of his growth and development. Each child should be given an opportunity to contribute his best, and some adequate account should be taken of his differences to make that possible. Varied activities will help the school deal with the problem of individual differences.

The individual child in the school must be understood and should become the unit that characterizes the administration and the teaching in the school. Mass instruction can be viewed only as a "hit or miss" process unless the individual and his differences are taken into consideration. Although schools cannot become mere tutoring institutions where individual instruction predominates and may be obliged to deal with large class groups for years to come, teachers can individualize as far as instruction is concerned whenever they completely understand the individual elementary school child. The curriculum will undergo adjustment whenever the individual differ-

ences of pupils are understood. Techniques in teaching also undergo modification in the light of the school's understanding of individual differences. For example, it must be understood that the slow pupil tends to profit to a greater extent from visual materials than does the bright pupil; on the other hand, the bright pupil tends to profit more from the use of extensive reading materials than the slow pupil. The elementary school, therefore, if it understands the nature of the child, will make adjustments of materials and methods in the light of individual differences. Only when it does make such adjustments is it able to offer equal opportunities to the children.

Individual differences of children are also apparent in their physical development. Some children are sturdy and strong; others are weak, frail, or crippled. Some are healthy; others sickly and often absent because of illness. Some have normal vision; others have impaired vision or may even be blind. Defects in hearing, even deafness, characterize the differences found in other children. Many physical defects in children make it necessary to provide special services and even special schools to provide educational opportunities. School programs must vary because of the physical differences found in children.

Differentiation must be provided for the gifted child as well as for the deficient and handicapped pupil. No school can be said to understand the child if teachers, principals, and other workers do not make provision for the identification and care of the gifted. Children may be gifted intellectually; they may have special abilities in art, music, or dramatics. Some may be manually minded and may have mechanical and inventive talents that must be discovered before opportunities can be given for the development of such innate gifts.

Knowledge of social development helps the school understand its pupils. A large problem confronting the elementary school, as shown in Chapter 2, is that of providing for the social development of the pupils. Children vary widely in this respect. Social maturity is acquired in various ways. It is sometimes acquired from the necessity of having to earn a living in

early life. The child in the street acquires, through imitation and association, the attitudes of the adult; thus he becomes prematurely socially developed. True, he is not socially mature in every respect, but he is mature in the respects in which he meets people in the streets. The newsboy, for example, is mature in that he has greater self-reliance and independence than the child who has been sheltered and protected. The same is true of the child who lives and mingles with street and alley gangs. The social maturity of the child is likewise affected through travel and contacts with culture. If a child is exposed to beautiful surroundings, good music, and works of art, he takes on those types of culture and social maturity. Some children at the time of admission to school are able to interpret and appreciate the works of master musicians and artists; others of similar age have virtually no interest in such forms of enjoyment.

Through informal training at home the child takes on a certain type of social maturity, and through informal associations in play groups he takes on another type. The child who always has had his own way, who has never had to share his toys with other children, is likely to be volitionally immature because he has seldom been placed in situations that required him to "give and take" or to restrain his will. Some children, on coming into the kindergarten, frequently want to claim everything for their own, but presently they learn to share with the other children. They take on the social maturity that comes from orderly association with the group.

Community provisions for child welfare, such as playgrounds and the staging of community functions, are sometimes helpful and sometimes detrimental. A community function, such as a carnival, may bring the child into contact with forms of social behavior that may be harmful and may create problems for the principal and the teachers. The school, however, must take what it receives in its pupil personnel and, on the basis of the previous development, project its program of growth for its individuals. The program will consist in direct education in the

classrooms; it may consist in indirect education in corridors, playgrounds, and through the voluntary and controlled pupil associations of the school.

Provision for caring for the social adjustment of pupils can often be made by giving special promotions in order to fit an individual pupil into a group of children who are more nearly his social equals. Some schools are so organized that continuous programming is possible. Forms of departmental organization often make it possible for the school to provide better for the social needs of its pupils. In making adjustments to care for the social needs of pupils, the school should keep in mind the individual pupil and should assign the pupil to such activities as will help to correct deficiencies in the previous training or social background of the individual. The school must also provide activities designed to correct deficiencies in social habits or attitudes.

Personality of child important in education. The child study movement and the mental hygiene movement have done a great deal to facilitate understanding of the nature of the child. They have given the school a broader viewpoint with respect to the educational problems involved. These movements have helped in broadening the emphasis of school work from the narrower routine of intellectual drill and discipline to include the important task of training the child in his emotional and personality development. The resulting contribution to education has been the creation in the schools of a scientific attitude toward children's behavior. It is much more important that teachers view the behavior of children in a functional way than that they secure expert clinical service for children after they have developed into problem cases. The school, therefore, must make provision for the emotional and personality variations and differences in children quite as much as it does for their intellectual differences. A study of the child's home life; a record of his behavior difficulties in school; an evaluation of his character traits; a summary of his aptitudes and interests; and a case-record study of his school life, kept in an individual

folder, will assist in effecting emotional and personality adjustments of the pupils in an elementary school.

Possibly no single factor is more important in dealing with children than that of the personality of the teacher. Administrators too often forget that teachers have personalities quite as definite as children; and nowhere, unless in the home, is the effect of one personality on another greater than in the school-room. Children learn by example as well as by precept. Teachers who are emotionally unstable, who themselves have frustrated and repressed personalities, may do an infinite amount of harm to their pupils. Hence, the school must give consideration to the personalities of both teachers and pupils. Maladjustment on the part of individual pupils can often be averted by the consideration given to both pupil and teacher when room or class assignments are made. The making of pupil-teacher assignments on the basis implied requires that the school have extensive knowledge regarding both teachers and pupils.

Home conditions must be understood. The nature of the elementary school child cannot be understood without an understanding of the home and the community from which he comes. Many children are physically and mentally no different from their fellows yet present problems because of the home environment. Poor housing, overcrowding in homes, lack of proper living habits at home, an inadequate place to study—all have their effect on the school life of the child. Conversely, when children come from homes with an overabundance of economic and social advantages, school is often of minor importance. The effect of the home training upon the social maturity of the child has already been discussed in a preceding paragraph. The home conditions also affect the school child's physical well-being, and his health is directly related to the physical care received at home.

The attitude of parents toward school and school attendance is of prime importance. Parental indifference with respect to regular attendance at school is an important cause of pupil absence. Economic conditions of the home often make it neces-

sary for children to work part time or to leave school early in order to supplement the family income. As a matter of fact, work as a cause of nonattendance is second only to illness, especially in communities with agricultural interests centered in some particular crop. Truancy from school is also directly related to the attitude of the home toward school. Where parents are interested in the child's school work and attendance, where they acquaint themselves with the child's school progress and are vitally interested in the school, the school's understanding of the child is enhanced. If, on the other hand, parents are indifferent, the children, too, will be indifferent toward their progress in their school work.

The moral and spiritual conditions of the home also have a great bearing upon the child and must be recognized before the child can be fully understood. Ethical values influence conduct, and the ethical values of the home condition the child's values and conduct in school. Ideas of honesty, fair play, attention to duty, and respect for property and the rights of others are all attributes of character which the child develops in the home and with which he comes to the school. Principals and teachers must study the home influences if pupils are to be understood.

Understanding of pupils must be based on facts. No school can understand its pupils unless it has accurate and reliable information concerning them. Such information can be acquired through the study of individual cases. Every school should have a complete cumulative record on every child. The record should contain facts as to the child's physical development and medical history, it should have the results of psychological and psychiatric examinations, and it should contain a complete school achievement record and all pertinent data available as to the child's home and community background. In other words, factual knowledge of pupils may be acquired by using the case method. A pupil in school requires diagnostic study and adjustment. Through diagnostic study, types of difficulties may be discovered and generalizations reached regarding their correction.

Six common causes of maladjustment have been established: (1) ineffective habits of work, (2) personality difficulties, (3) deficiencies in previous training, (4) physical defects, (5) mental disability, and (6) psychophysical defects. The advantages of directing the thinking of school workers to these types are (1) knowledge of causes and remedies is acquired, (2) skill is developed in diagnosis and treatment, and (3) a scientific attitude toward problems in education is formed. Adjustment work can then be planned to provide for case types.

The school can also use the results of work by community agencies in its community as a means of helping in understanding children in school. Another method of acquiring facts regarding pupils is the special survey. For example, a school may make a reading survey of its pupil personnel to appraise the reading problems as a means of identifying those pupils who present problems in the development of reading habits, a survey of ability to perform the fundamental processes of arithmetic, or a survey to appraise the mental capacity or the personality ratings of the pupils. The survey provides the basis for better understanding and identifying the problems in teaching so that workers in the school can be more definite in their dealings with children. Other types of surveys that can be undertaken to help in the understanding of pupils are the socioeconomic survey, English usage survey, health survey, and the like. The school must undertake such surveys to acquire the necessary facts about its pupils. When a school does not study its pupils, it cannot anticipate its problems. Sometimes this procedure is justified by the policy of not "crossing bridges until the bridges are reached"; but in reality the principle involved is that of *laissez faire*, and the administration of the school becomes merely one of administering emergencies.

SUMMARY

It is the function of the elementary school to provide, through its program, opportunities for the normal growth and development of the children enrolled. The work and program of the school must be based on a thorough understanding of

children. *The individual child must be made the unit of study and consideration both in teaching and administration.* The school should not seek to cast an individual pupil into a pattern or mold; but rather to discover his abilities and disabilities in order that it may help him to overcome disabilities and to develop abilities to the fullest possible extent within the restrictions set by the general aims of the elementary school.

Children cannot be fully understood unless their physical growth and the stages of their physical development are known. Children in an elementary school go through all the stages from the small child of the kindergarten to that of the adolescent approaching adulthood. *The characteristics of the different stages of physical development must be known if the nature of the child is to be understood.* The growth and development of elementary school children are affected by sex, glandular balance, and chronological age.

Psychological as well as physiological growth must be studied in order to reveal the nature of the child. Individual differences develop early in the life of the child and become quite fixed by the time he leaves the school. They must be studied to further the understanding of the child.

Health, both physical and mental, is an important factor in the development of the individual and must be studied to get complete understanding. One of the best ways of determining the nature of a child is to study his growth pattern. *An organismic age is often of more importance than mere chronological or mental age.* The full pattern of child growth reveals many facts of importance to fuller understanding.

All children have basic human needs and children develop and grow best when their needs are satisfied. The school must share the responsibility with the home of meeting these needs. Psychological as well as physical needs are important and the personality development of all children is dependent upon the way such needs are met.

No elementary child can be understood without noting individual differences in physical, mental, social, temperamental, and environmental backgrounds. Differences in ability to learn

and in rates of learning are particularly important to the school. A knowledge of the social development of a child and an understanding of his personality are of equal importance in education. Finally, the nature of every child is conditioned by his home and neighborhood backgrounds. *Schools must study the home and the community from which the children come if they are to understand the children enrolled in the elementary school.*

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The Classroom as a Laboratory of Living and Learning

THE FUNCTION OF THE AMERICAN ELEMENTARY school, the social background of the child, and the nature of the children to be served, have been considered in preceding chapters. It has been pointed out that the individual school and its community constitute the appropriate unit for co-operative organization and administration. Within the school the classroom is the most important functional unit. The role of the classroom; the personnel concerned; the working relationships involved; and the organization, operation, and management of the classroom are discussed in this chapter as an application of the concepts and principles already presented. The concept of the classroom unit is intended to include all of the adults and children who are associated together for the purpose of providing a balanced program of learning experiences for a specified classroom group of boys and girls.

THE ROLE OF THE CLASSROOM

It is the role of the classroom to motivate, inspire, guide, direct, and evaluate the learning of a specific group of children in a specific school in a specific neighborhood through the co-operation of many people who are associated together for

learning purposes. To operate effectively, the classroom must give constant consideration to the goals and aims it is intended to achieve. Therefore, the planning, living, and learning that go on in a classroom should be directed toward achieving the goals, aims, and objectives of the school system of which it is a part.

Everything that happens in a classroom should make a definite contribution toward a balanced program of learning for the individuals of the group and for the class as a whole. A classroom should be a happy, businesslike, pleasant living and learning headquarters that helps a group of children to choose and make use of a satisfactory set of school, home, and neighborhood experiences. These experiences should include those which will enable children to acquire the attitudes, abilities, and skills of both individual and group living and the personal development that the community, school system, individual school, and associated classroom personnel have agreed to strive to attain. The set of living and learning experiences chosen should enable the children in a class to conduct themselves as responsible, considerate, contributing citizens at every stage of their development.

In considering the role of the classroom in a school, it would seem reasonable to expect the community (acting with and through the leadership of the board of education and school administration) to provide the following general guides and services for classroom planning, operation, and management:

1. A philosophy of education that takes into account recent findings in the fields of education, sociology, biology, psychology, anthropology, medicine, economics, and other related disciplines.
2. A set of general all-school objectives and specific curriculum objectives built into a scope and sequence plan for unified instruction in the school system.
3. Curriculum guides that suggest the learning experiences, methods, and materials that may be considered in planning the program of the classroom.

4. A program of school services that supplement the work of the teacher in such a way as to permit and encourage the teacher to function at the highest possible level of professional service.

5. Adequate school housing with good custodial and maintenance service.

The five elements named above are considered a necessary basis for planning, organizing, and managing an effective classroom in a good elementary school in any community.

THE CLASSROOM AS A LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Many explanations have been offered as to how learning may actually take place in the growth and development of a child. Because the major role of the classroom is to be that of a headquarters for a balanced program of learning, it is imperative that every school system, every school faculty, every classroom teacher, and the personnel associated with the classroom agree upon a concept of how learning takes place. Indeed, it is necessary to go farther and agree upon the conditions, methods, and materials that motivate, inhibit, and control learning.

Very briefly stated, learning is the cumulative result of the experiences that an individual has come to incorporate into his current behavior. The end product of education is a child, youth, or adult who thinks, feels, and acts as an individual or in a group so that his behavior is increasingly satisfying to himself and increasingly acceptable to his fellow human beings. The classroom is a social, psychological, and physical learning environment.

The classroom as a social environment. When a child lives with a group of children and a teacher in a classroom for five hours a day for from 160 to 200 days in a school year, there is bound to be some development of social attitudes, abilities, and skills as a result of living together. For better or for worse, the everyday happenings in the classroom are of vital import to the child who experiences them. It is at once a challenge, a responsibility, and an opportunity given to none but the

teacher to see to it that social growth is properly directed. Much good will be accomplished in the field of social growth if teacher and children develop common goals that are appropriate to the age, ability, and maturity of the children. On the other hand, much negative learning may take place if teacher and children are unable to work together for common goals of social growth. It should be the ambition of every teacher so to manage the classroom that it will be a unit in a children's society that strives to identify and practice the ideals, principles, procedures, and human relationships that are essential in the democratic social order in which we live and in which we hope to live.

Leaders in the fields of sociology and other social sciences have made rapid strides in the development of an area of study that may be referred to as sociometry. Sociometry offers new insights and new tools for use in guiding the social growth of children, if teachers will only take advantage of the findings of our colleagues in another professional discipline.¹

A healthful social environment will be the result of healthful relationships among teachers, pupils, parents, school administration, and neighborhood leaders. Constant effort must be expended to build and maintain constructive attitudes and skills in working together, in playing fair, and in recognizing the dignity and worth of every individual in a social group.

The future of mankind seems to be hanging in the balance between the possibility of building an effective set of attitudes, abilities, and skills of group living in the family, in the school, in the community, in the nation, and in the world or facing the possibility that civilization will be destroyed by the forces of violence and social conflict. It appears to be an inevitable conclusion that the associated personnel of classrooms in a democratic social order should dedicate themselves to the former possibility with every ounce of determination at their command.

¹ Ruth Cunningham and others, *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls* (New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951), p. 462.

The classroom as a psychological environment. If teachers, parents, and others are to be associated together in motivating, directing, and evaluating the learning of a specific group of children, then it is important that they have a clear, agreed-upon concept of how learning takes place. The following summary of views regarding the learning process may be of help in classroom planning.

Earlier theories of learning were based upon the doctrine of formal discipline and automatic transfer of training to such an extent that the classroom was a formal, drillmaster-dominated place. It was believed that the more unpleasant the school task, the greater the learning would be. This theory of learning depended upon a teacher who could compel the repetition of some task until it was supposedly mastered and stamped into the mind of the learner. The good teacher forced children to behave in ways that were acceptable to the teacher and others in the community by a rigid program of external control that utilized corporal punishment, sarcasm, threats, and the like, as accepted methods of conduct control. When such a theory of learning was accepted, the above role of the teacher and of the classroom were logical and right in the mind of the teacher, parents, and other people in the community.

This view of the learning process looked to the parent to supplement the teacher as a taskmaster during the time the child was in the parent's presence or under his control. Although many parents and teachers agreed upon this rigid program of compulsion in conduct control and were in that sense parent-teacher teams, there was a tendency for the child to fear and to try to evade the tasks assigned by teachers or by parents if at all possible. It was easy for misunderstandings to develop that would lead the parents to take up the cause of the child, and this resulted in a tug-of-war between the school as an institution and the parent of the child who was to be served. This old tug-of-war feeling must be eliminated if teachers, parents, children, and neighborhood leaders are to make the best learning programs possible for boys and girls. Therefore, the

classroom partnership of associated personnel seems to be the best concept to use in preparing the psychological environment needed in order to permit an elementary school classroom to perform its intended role.

Research in the related fields of education, psychology, biology, sociology, and cultural anthropology has produced a theory of learning that may be very briefly stated: Learning comes from the doing of something of importance to the learner. The something is done in a total environment that is a field of forces constantly surrounding the learner every moment of his life. This field of forces includes the learner, his motives, how he feels physically, his quality of thinking, what his grandparents think of him, and a multitude of other elements in his personal, social environment. It includes the forces at work in the social order in which he lives. The mores, laws, ethical standards of the society in which he lives affect him at every moment of his life. The behavior of the learner is the cumulative result of the experiences that he has incorporated into his current feeling, thinking, and acting. Learning is not complete with only one or two of the action words in the preceding sentence. *Thinking* and *knowing* what is proper or right is no guarantee that the learner will *do* what is known or agreed upon to be right. When the learner *feels*, *thinks*, and *acts* something that he has learned, it can be said that he has made that something a part of his current behavior and that he has learned it.

After review of the various theories of learning, a classroom teacher and associated personnel will need to adopt a point of view that will guide them in planning and developing a classroom program of directed learning. Some may have the temptation to adopt the point of view of those who advocate the child-centered school. Others may be inclined to advocate the society-centered school. Both groups can make a very good case for their viewpoint; but it is contended here that neither is a satisfactory and complete program without some part of the other. As pointed out in Chapter I, a balanced program is

necessary—one that considers both the needs of children and the needs of society.

Another point of view today holds that a developing social order creates certain tasks for a child to perform as he grows and matures in the field of forces that surround him. In other words, the culture in which the child lives sets the nature of the tasks he is expected to perform. As the culture changes, the tasks are modified to meet the new conditions. This is a promising point of view, because every person is going to live the rest of his life in the future. However, there is grave danger that too much emphasis may be placed upon change as such and that permanent values and goals may be neglected. This may create in children a feeling of uncertainty, bewilderment, and futility to the extent that they become easy prey for any political, economic, cultural, or social propagandist who comes along. There is real danger also that such propaganda may be interpreted as genuine change and that through such interpretation it will become change. As pointed out in Chapter 1, there are guideposts to prevent panic or wandering after will-o'-the-wisps, and the American elementary school cannot afford to omit them from the total school program. It is true, of course, that changes in the gadgets of our culture—bathtubs, telephones, radio, television, automobiles, and so on—have brought about some changes in our way of living. It is just as true, however, that the basic tenets of our American way of life as stated in the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and other basic documents have not changed. Neither has there been change in the moralities and ideals of the Judeo-Christian religion upon which our western civilization is anchored. The ideals and inspirations of our ancestors have not yet been realized, and it is the duty of the American elementary school to point out guideposts so that the young citizen will be able to recognize the right road.

It is the obligation of the school (which is a teacher plus associated personnel) to set the stage for learning by providing a psychological environment that promotes the type of beha-

vior desired by the community through a program of conduct control that guides children to grow as well-balanced individuals. The goal, which must constantly be kept before everyone, is to guide children to have a set of learning experiences that will enable them to behave in such a way as to become increasingly satisfying to themselves and increasingly acceptable to their fellow human beings. The right psychological environment is certainly an essential in any effort to achieve such a goal.

It appears that a new era in education is emerging that will take a compromise position between the overemphasis upon formal discipline of years gone by and the more recent overemphasis upon child-centered programs of education. This emerging school of thought holds that discipline of self and of groups is essential in a democratic social order. It places the emphasis upon striving for self-discipline and advocates that children have an opportunity to acquire the attitudes, abilities, and skills of discipline as early as possible in their development. It is believed that children are most likely to feel, think, and act as good citizens in an adult society if they have the opportunity to feel, think, and act as good citizens in a children's society which is directed by a positive conduct-control program.²

The classroom as a physical environment. The physical features of a classroom should be designed to be functional for the group of children who will use it. In years past, some school buildings have looked more like a memorial to a board of education than a laboratory of living and learning for six- to twelve-year-olds. Such elements as interior decoration, lighting, ventilation, floor space area, furniture, plumbing, and so on should be designed to serve children and to promote the learning program. Space for learning experiences of the two types emphasized in Chapter 1 should be the central consideration in classroom planning. A comfortable physical setting

² H. S. Tuttle, *Dynamic Psychology and Conduct* (New York: Harper Brothers, 1949), pp. 261-370.

makes it easier to achieve the role of the classroom as a pleasant, businesslike, happy learning headquarters for a specific group of children, parents, principal, the Parent-Teacher Association, neighborhood leaders, and other associated personnel. The school plant will be given a more complete treatment in Chapter 15.

The concept of the classroom as a laboratory of living and learning begins to take on more complete meaning if the elements of the environment are viewed as a totality with the social, psychological, and physical phases blended together. The rest of this chapter will be devoted to a discussion of the personnel, organization, operation, and management of the classroom as a learning environment.

THE PERSONNEL OF THE CLASSROOM TEAM

The team concept of working together to achieve a goal is one familiar to all who listen to or view basketball, football, baseball, or other games in action. The classroom team consists of all of the adults and children who are associated together for the purpose of providing a balanced program of learning experiences for a specified classroom group of boys and girls. In most elementary schools a complete team should include from sixty to as many as a hundred people, depending upon the size of the class and the personnel that is available to help with the class. Such a team must study, plan, and work together if the function of the elementary school is to be achieved. The personnel of a specific classroom team also needs to join with other classroom teams in the work of the school team. All concerned should understand that the teacher is expected to serve as the professional leader of the classroom unit, while the principal is expected to serve as the professional leader of the school team. The team idea is illustrated in Figures 2, 3 and 4.

The basic members of the team. A teacher, the children, a school principal, and the parents are the basic members of the team. It is their responsibility to work together for the best

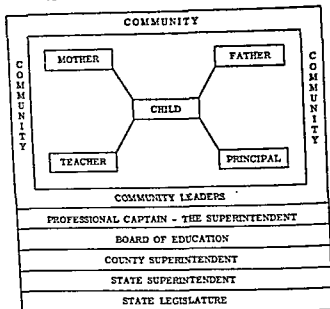


Fig. 4. Diagram of a School System Team.

possible total program of learning experiences for every child in the classroom and for the group. When these basic team members have learned to work together as a closely-knit unit, then others who have special services to offer should be called in to join the unit as they are needed. The actual calling in of the services should be the joint responsibility of the two unit leaders, the teacher and the principal. The teacher should feel free to present the need for the services of others to the principal; and the principal should feel free to suggest that a particular service might help the teacher, children, and parents. In the functioning of the classroom unit, it is the responsibility of the principal to know the nature of the services that are available and to interpret these services to all members of the unit. As administrative leader of the school team it is the responsibility of the principal to assign the time of others who give services to the children in any of the classrooms in the school.

School systems vary in the number and kind of services that they can or desire to make available to the classroom, school, or school system. The following list includes some of the services that can be helpful to basic classroom teams:

1. Collaborating teachers (such teachers may help with art, music, physical education, language arts, methods, materials, and so on).

2. Psychological services (measurement, including group testing, individual testing, and so on).

3. Instructional materials service (books and printed materials, school library services, audiovisual aids, and so on).

4. Guidance and counseling service (group work, individual casework, home-school visitation, and so on).

5. School health service (health inspections, follow-up service, immunization, informational programs, and so on).

6. Adjusted curriculum service for exceptional children.

7. Administrative and instructional leadership services of the superintendent or his staff in administration, direction of personnel, or improvement of instruction.

The school principal takes the lead in encouraging the teacher, children, and parents to form a partnership between the school and the home where the principal is performing his proper function. The school administration and the board of education encourage the formation of classroom teams and support their work in every possible way where the real function of the elementary school is understood and practiced. Where such understanding and practice exist, the parents are joining classroom units in larger and larger numbers, and children are getting better and better programs of education from such teamwork.

THE WORKING RELATIONSHIP OF THE CLASSROOM TEAM

As has been indicated, the classroom unit will need to work with other teachers, other parents, school system personnel, other schools, the superintendent, the board of education, the community, the county school office, the state school office, and

the state legislature. In working with others it will be helpful to know what is considered to be good practice in this field of human endeavor.

The relationship of the classroom unit to other teachers. A classroom unit may be assisted by few or many collaborating teachers in such fields as music, art, science, language arts, physical education, teaching methods, materials, or others. This relationship should be one where the classroom teacher (the team leader) plans the program with the collaborating teacher, a resource person. In general practice this is not always the case, because the resource person works under the handicap of a traveling schedule and a somewhat rigid separation of the work of the classroom teacher and the collaborating teacher. In many cases this lack of co-ordination occurs because the school administration and the board of education do not understand the necessity and desirability of making the time available for co-operative planning. Sometimes funds are not available to provide enough teaching personnel to make this type of program possible. The school principal should serve as a co-ordinator in the planning of the classroom teachers and all resource personnel. When adequate planning has been done, there is no reason why the classroom teacher must always be with the collaborating teacher and children when they are working together. The principal, serving as co-ordinator, should help to arrange the time schedule so that each classroom teacher and each collaborating teacher will have a balanced program of work that provides some time each day when the teacher may study, plan, or relax without being in contact with a group of children at that time. When such a schedule is made possible, it is likely that it will be one of the factors which will help eliminate the scarcity of teachers on the elementary school level.

The relationship of the classroom unit to other children. Each classroom group of children is a functional unit in a school that is made up of a few or many classrooms. The working relationship should be that of a good neighbor in any

neighborhood. Every teacher, every child, every parent, every collaborating teacher, and every school service worker has a general stake in every other person in the school and the school system. Where the proper relationship exists between classroom units, there will be a sharing of achievements, a shouldering together of the burdens of school life.

The relationship of the classroom unit to the parents of other school groups. Each classroom team should be a functional part of an effective parent-teacher organization made up of all the classroom units at any one school. The school organization, in turn, should be a functional part of a system-wide parent-teacher organization. Every classroom team should have a plan for operation that takes into account the individual classroom program, the school program, and the school system plan. It should be recognized that some parents will need to be members of more than one classroom team, and the program should provide for this situation.

The relationship of the classroom team to those who may be called in to help. The decision to call in others to help should be the responsibility of the teacher and principal after clearance with the parents concerned. It should be an action of the principal to arrange for the time that will be used for a particular type of help. In this way the principal performs his proper function in leadership with regard to program making and the effective use of time. The service of a person called in to help a classroom unit should not be continued beyond the time when such service is needed by a child or a group of children. It is good practice to have a faculty group assist the teacher and principal in deciding whether a service is needed or not for a particular child. This can be achieved through the use of an appraisal conference called by the principal when all members of the faculty who know the child or who may be able to help are invited to meet and pool information in such a way as to reach a group recommendation which will be best for the child. In such appraisal conferences the skills of the psychological, guidance, health, and other services may be utilized.

The relationship of the classroom unit to the school administration. Each classroom unit works through the administrative leadership of a school principal who has been referred to as the professional leader of a school team consisting of a faculty, the children, the parents, local office service personnel, local building service personnel, school system service personnel, and neighborhood leaders. It is the function of the school principal to be the official connecting link between the local school and the school administration. Each school unit works through the administrative leadership of a superintendent of schools who functions as the professional leader of the school system team. The school system team is made up of the children, the faculty, the parents, service personnel, the board of education, and community leaders.

The relationship of the classroom unit to the board of education. A classroom unit works according to educational policies that are officially formulated by the board of education. The board is usually elected by the people or appointed by local officials and derives its powers and duties from the state legislature. Therefore, it becomes the function of the classroom unit to carry out an educational program for the state legislature under the auspices of the board of education as entrusted to the administrative leadership of a superintendent selected and elected by the local board. The local board delegates the execution of its program and policies to the superintendent of schools, and he in turn is expected to delegate many responsibilities to others. The superintendent, after consulting with his administrative staff, nominates all personnel for positions and submits the nominations to the board of education to approve or reject as the board sees fit, because the final employment of school personnel rests with the board. A board of education will provide such assistants for the superintendent as are needed so that he may devote the greater share of his time to the solution of major educational problems. In doing this, the superintendent facilitates the work of the school and classroom units in many ways.

The members of a classroom team transact official business with the board of education through the school principal and superintendent, who are administrative representatives of the board. When a teacher, parent, or patron has an educational problem that he believes should have attention, he should take it up with the school principal first to see whether a local school solution is possible. When a local school solution has been explored and it appears that the problem should be called to the attention of the superintendent, then the principal and those concerned should request the assistance of the superintendent in solving the problem. After consideration of the problem, the superintendent may be able to suggest a solution without reference to the board of education or he may find that it is a problem that seems to need the attention of the board. It is poor practice for a teacher, faculty, parents, or parents' group to approach a board of education or any of its members with regard to problems that they have not first considered with the school principal or superintendent. If it is the function of the school principals and superintendent to serve as leaders of a team for the purpose of performing the educational services that the board of education has authorized, then it seems logical to use the services of the unit leaders as the first step in searching for the solution of an educational problem. There should be a friendly and cordial relationship between the board of education and all members of the school system. A good atmosphere or climate is essential if all the people who make up the various groups within the school system are to be encouraged to perform at their highest possible level. If children are to have the best possible program, the best possible professional relationships must exist between the various members of the school units and between the school and the community that it serves.

ORGANIZING THE CLASSROOM FOR BALANCED LEARNING

Many items must receive careful attention if a classroom is to succeed in achieving the goals it has agreed to strive to

attain. The responsibility for organizing and managing the classroom logically falls to a great extent upon the leader of the unit, the teacher, and upon the school head, the principal. To the beginner who is entering the classroom for the first time, the responsibility may be a bit frightening. But one should not be alarmed about this feeling because accepting the leadership of a classroom unit is a serious responsibility. It is also a challenge and an opportunity. Some of the routines that will need organization are presented on the following pages. They are intended to acquaint the inexperienced teacher with a broad idea of the role and function of the classroom in a school or school system.

Planning and organizing classroom routines. In order to achieve the goals set up for a classroom unit, it is necessary to establish a definite plan for managing many of the routines that will be important from day to day. Every teacher and every principal should have a clear understanding of how the following phases of classroom operation will be managed.

1. A plan should be formed for introducing members of the classroom unit to one another. It is important for the principal to perform this part of his work as school leader with effectiveness and grace. The emotional climate that surrounds the introduction of a new teacher to the children, to parents, and to others is important. The actual details of the plan are not so important as is the fact that such a plan is developed and is clear to all members of the classroom unit.

2. A traffic plan for the classroom unit should be established that considers the time of arrival at school, the time for leaving school, the route to and from school, entering the building, entering the classroom, moving about in the classroom, leaving the classroom, and storing and caring for clothing and other school material upon arrival. Such a traffic plan needs to be designed according to the age level of the children and the traffic hazards of the neighborhood concerned.

3. A plan for budgeting and using time is very important. It should include a method for starting to work and how the day,

the week, the month, the school year, or a longer period of time may be used to the advantage of all members of the classroom unit. An interesting, balanced program of instruction suited to the children concerned requires much attention to the question of proper time planning.

4. Instructional materials and supplies should be stored and managed so that a minimum amount of time is consumed in distribution and collection. Adequate, well-planned storage facilities will expedite the use of many and varied materials. An alert teacher will requisition materials well ahead of the time they are to be used. Pupils can take a considerable share of responsibility in planning the use and management of work materials.

5. Good housekeeping is a necessary adjunct to good living. Some housekeeping tasks can be assumed by the youngest children, while older pupils can assume nearly all such duties not specifically reserved for the janitorial staff. Teacher-pupil planning can work out responsibilities, duties, and assignments necessary to insure good living conditions.

6. Preparing and making reports is a routine part of any teaching assignment. Daily attendance records, health reports, regular enrollment and attendance reports, reports to parents, pupil entries and transfers, cumulative folders, and so on are a vital necessity in all but the smallest of schools. It is easy to forget that the only way a principal can keep in touch with children or a group of children is through accurate, reliable information sent to the office by the classroom teacher.

7. Guests frequently judge the entire school system by the reception given them by a classroom unit. Most teachers include official hosts and hostesses in their plan for classroom management. These pupils welcome and attend to the welfare of all guests. The better the home-and-school relations, the more often visitors will be inclined to drop in. Every visitor is a prospective friend and ally of the school system.

8. Every classroom has numerous occasions when money is collected—for special materials, for parties, for workbooks, Jun-

ior Red Cross, TB or Easter Seals, March of Dimes, milk or lunch programs, to name a few. This can be drudgery for the teacher or an opportunity to give children actual experience in writing out receipts, counting, packaging, and accounting for real money. Pupil management will also relieve the teacher for more important tasks while giving children real life experiences.

Supervised play in and out of the classroom. Play is a natural way of learning. Dramatic, expressive, and interpretive play is second nature to young children. The good teacher will capitalize on this fact and use play to help children learn and to help her learn about children. Furthermore, the understanding teacher is aware of the possibilities of play therapy and will make use of it in her total classroom program.

A supervised morning and afternoon play period outside the classroom, especially for the younger children, is customary practice in the elementary school. The noisy, active games not permissible in the classroom are a necessary part of the day. Growing children need to "let off steam." In addition to providing needed exercise and relaxation from classroom routine, these games and activities are used to develop such basic concepts as taking turns, playing according to rules, meeting a challenge, losing and winning, and so on.

Treating undesirable behavior. Children, simply because they are normal, will exhibit undesirable behavior at various times throughout their school career. It isn't natural for children to grow and develop without variation from a fixed pattern.

The skillful teacher will assure a minimum amount of undesirable behavior by careful planning and foresight in implementing her classroom program. Among the considerations will be the following: (1) setting up good classroom routines and management practices; (2) making the curriculum interesting, pertinent, and challenging; (3) keeping physical conditions in the room as comfortable as possible; (4) seeing to it that play and relaxation periods are properly spaced with study and

work periods; (5) maintaining a warm, friendly social climate in the classroom; (6) insuring each child an opportunity to excel at something to achieve status among his peers; and (7) becoming so well acquainted with each child as to sense when things are not going well and thus help make adjustments before a breakdown in behavior occurs. As captain of the classroom team, the teacher accepts the responsibility for the behavior of her children and through a program of positive conduct control attempts to lead them into good behavior. In all cases of undesirable behavior, the first problem to be faced is that of discovering the cause. If and when that is discovered, the second step is to work out some plan that will reduce its incidence. Where punishment is called for, it should be of corrective nature—one which will do something *for* the child, rather than one that vents the spleen of the adult. This is not meant to infer that children should not be punished; it is necessary for children to learn that there are consequences to the things they do. However, those consequences should be used to redirect the behavior of children rather than to wreak vengeance upon them.

Many children have given little thought to the consequences of their behavior, and especially of its effects upon others, before entering school. Teacher-pupil study of rights, freedoms, and responsibilities should play a large part in determining what behavior standards should be set up for a particular classroom. It is difficult for most adults to understand the world of a six-year-old and to devise a standard of conduct that will meet the criteria of acceptable behavior to adults and meaningful behavior to children. Although one of the goals of the classroom unit is eventual self-control of all its members, the final responsibility to guide and insure proper growth belongs to the team captain.

The principal's responsibility encompasses all the classroom units in the building and, as such, includes a considerable community. His is the final responsibility also in treating cases of undesirable behavior, even if it be found necessary to seek

the help of the superintendent or other personnel in the school system. It is necessary for him to take direct action in any case, however, because the classroom teacher will usually consult with him to work out a plan of action in any instance she feels she cannot manage alone. In addition, in staff meetings a general plan of behavior management should be worked out as a guide for all teachers in the particular school.

Parents also have a share in the responsibility of determining what acceptable behavior is and for helping guide children toward it. Home and school must have a common understanding of what proper standards are and how deviations are to be treated. Considerable study and discussion is often necessary before such agreement is reached. Without such understanding, however, the repercussions can be serious when the school insists upon one standard of behavior and the home approves or condones another. The official school staff is responsible for guiding behavior while the child is in school; but unless parents take over during the rest of the day, much of the school influence will be dissipated. Teacher and parent should complement each other in their joint efforts to bring about good behavior and to redirect undesirable behavior.

Children should share in defining and setting up acceptable behavior patterns for their own guidance. Inasmuch as their behavior is a response to a total school program, sharing in the organization and management of school procedure will go a long way toward preventing undesirable behavior. All children need to come to understand their mutual responsibilities toward others in a democracy if they are to develop into responsible citizens. When this understanding is present, undesirable behavior can usually be interpreted as a symptom of some personal concern of the child and should be so treated. This means that children should assume more and more responsibility for establishing and living up to acceptable standards of behavior as they are able to do so. The school intends to develop citizens who are responsible, considerate, contributing members of

American society. Children are to be guided toward such citizenship at every stage of their development.

Motivating children to learn. To be most effective, proposed learning experiences must make sense to the learner. He must see some relationship between what he has or wants out of life and what the lesson has to offer. This relationship is affected by various factors in the learner's total environment and includes such items as physical well-being, emotional health, previous learning experiences, mental ability, the home situation, teacher-pupil relationships, teacher-pupil-home relationships, and the general attitude of the neighborhood and community toward education and school experience.

Motivation is the process of bringing about a learning environment that causes a learning experience to make sense or to make a difference to the learner. For most primary children, the desire to learn to read and write is motivation enough; but in the intermediate grades the child has learned to read well enough to enjoy comic books and to write well enough to satisfy his immediate urges. It takes careful planning and skillful presentation to motivate some children to learn the specialized reading skills they will need to develop as they continue through school. Artificial stimulation, such as grades, punishments, bribes, and so on, are of little real value in motivation. Children who are required to learn and do things that have little meaning for them are likely to develop an unfavorable attitude toward school, teachers, and learning in general.

There is no known set of devices or techniques that will motivate all children to learn the same lesson at the same time. The effective teacher will know the characteristics of her children and will try to reach as many of them as possible in the presentation. Later, the others can be singled out for individualization of instruction in some way that will be purposeful to them.

Guiding children in learning. Effective motivation is the first and most important single principle of learning; but it is the first step only and does not of itself assure balanced learning.

The program must include a balance between what the child considers important and what society considers important for him. Constant guidance and encouragement by the classroom teacher and others is necessary for successfully promoting a balanced learning program.

It should be remembered that individualization of instruction is necessary. Every prospective teacher has been impressed with the fact that children are different—sometimes almost to the point of forgetting that they also have characteristics in common. In spite of this, however, many teachers err on the side of neglecting these differences in planning school experiences. Regardless of the effectiveness of a deliberate plan of motivation, unless the work is within the grasp of the individual child, it may lead only to frustration and disappointment.

Attitudes, abilities, and skills are more meaningful when presented in situations similar to their actual use. Democracy becomes meaningful to the extent that children are permitted to practice it. The social graces are readily learned by members of the classroom team when they are practiced in day-to-day living. Children early learn the use of money by going to the grocery store, making purchases, and returning with the correct change. The school cannot approach all learnings with real-life situations, but an effort must be made to approximate them insofar as it is possible. Also, a variety of experiences should be provided so that a rich background of first-hand knowledge is had by each learner. Presenting the same skills in different ways is to get away from the kind of drill that is too often meaningless, monotonous, and uninspiring.

Retention depends largely upon use. Referring again to democratic practices, it is reasonable to expect that growing citizens will understand those practices best if they are used at school and at home. Spelling, for instance, is meaningful if the words studied are those used by children in their classwork, in writing letters, and in other communication. Words will be retained better by children if used frequently after learning

how to spell them. Frequent and systematic reviews that provide actual practice in the use of acquired skills are helpful. Concentrating on a few things and doing them well is better than using the shotgun approach of casual exposure to many. Children will retain best knowledge they actually use, and time spent in memorization of irrelevant and impersonal factual data is largely lost.

Only a fraction of the child's time is spent in the learning situation of the classroom. This means that the guidance of learning activities must extend into nonclassroom experiences for balanced learning and should be the concern of all members of the classroom unit; for learning goes on not only during school hours but every minute of the active day.

Methods of guiding learning should be agreed upon by the school system in general, by the principal and teacher specifically, and by other members of the classroom unit under the leadership of the teacher and principal acting as coleaders.

Evaluating school learning. Learning must be evaluated in terms of the changes that have taken place in the learner. This is a complex and serious task. Early overemphasis upon fact and skill examinations is being replaced by study of changes in feeling, thinking, and acting. These are changes that it is the function of the American elementary school to bring about.

Evaluation must be in terms of the goals set up and understood by all members of the classroom unit. It is grossly unfair, as well as valueless, to say that the goal is one kind of learning and then to evaluate in different terms. In Chapter I it was pointed out that every school system, every school unit, and every classroom unit must agree upon the attitudes, abilities, and skills to be sought.

SUMMARY

This chapter has described the requirement that the classroom be in harmony with the function of the elementary school. As presented here, the classroom should be conceived as a laboratory that is a happy, businesslike, pleasant head-

quarters that motivates, inspires, guides, directs, and evaluates a balanced program of living and learning for a specific group of children who attend a specific school in a specific neighborhood.

Such a laboratory should be planned, managed, and operated by a team of persons who are associated together for that purpose. This team should include a teacher who serves as professional leader, the children, the parents, the principal, and others who may be called in to help from time to time. All who work in or with the classroom team must understand that the social, psychological, and physical elements of the environment need to be welded together into an atmosphere that will encourage girls and boys to develop in individual and group living and learning to the highest possible level.

Children are most likely to develop into good adult citizens with constructive attitudes, effective abilities, and useful skills if they have an opportunity to feel, think, and act as good citizens in a children's society that is directed toward valid goals by a team of persons who work well together.

The members of a classroom team need to understand effective ways of working with other classroom teams, other schools, neighborhood leaders, community leaders, the school administration, the board of education, county school officials, state school officials, and the state legislature. What is believed to be best practice in these relationships has been presented in this chapter.

Much importance has been placed upon the proper organization and management of the classroom as a laboratory of living and learning. *The routine elements of classroom operation must be carefully planned and effectively administered if children are to have the opportunity to develop in a balanced way.* No child or group of children really desires a classroom environment that is more or less controlled than the maturity of the group requires. A program of positive conduct control that seeks to develop a self-disciplined citizen has been recommended. When a real participation system is used, children

will have a share in setting up the standards for their behavior in the classroom, school, neighborhood, and home. The authors believe that it is better for an inexperienced teacher to exercise too much control in managing the classroom rather than too little control, provided the teacher moves toward the gradual development of self-control on the part of the children in her group.

When a team of interested persons co-operate in planning, managing, and operating a laboratory of living and learning for children in every classroom in a school system, the chances for achieving the goals of the elementary school are excellent.

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The Elementary School Curriculum

A DEGREE OF UNCERTAINTY EXISTS regarding responsibility for the school curriculum. Conventionally, upper-level units of the school hierarchy issue curriculums in whole or in part. State departments of public instruction, central offices of city systems, and county offices often issue detailed courses of study for use in the schools. In such cases, principals of elementary schools or members of their staffs may be granted limited representation in planning the curriculum in case some of their members are included in curriculum committees of the higher units. After curriculum directives have been issued from higher sources, principals are usually expected to interpret the curriculum to their teachers and to make such local adaptations as are possible. The need is paramount to identify the organization unit or level of the public school system having main responsibility for making the curriculum and to indicate the related roles of the other participating organization units.

THE INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL MAKES ITS OWN CURRICULUM

Analysis of the factors involved leads to the inescapable conclusion that the individual school should largely make its own

curriculum. To a far greater degree than any other unit in the school organization, it possesses the elements necessary for effective curriculum making.

Procedure for individual school in large-system framework. If the elementary school is a unit of a large, complex school system such as that of a large city, the system may issue broad objectives and outlines suited to the needs of the urban community for the guidance of individual schools. In such instances, the individual school adapts these guides to its own community situation, utilizing, extending, or revising them as principal, teachers, parents and pupils deem essential.

Nature of curriculum determines place of its making. The chief reason that the individual school has thus far been assigned a minor role in planning and making the curriculum has been the conception that the curriculum consists almost wholly of formalized information and skills that must be acquired by the pupil through academic content and methods. When the curriculum is thus regarded, it can be planned in an office or organization unit much higher in the school hierarchy than the individual school and much more remote from the teaching and learning scene. It can be laid out in marked detail and can be administered largely by verbal fiat. This procedure assumes, moreover, that the curriculum is largely the same for all types of communities within the state or city school system.

When the curriculum is truly conceived as the experiences and activities of successful daily living, the necessity for its being made chiefly in the individual school becomes readily apparent. Such a curriculum can be made only where the pupil is, where the guidance of the teacher is available, and where the living of the pupils actually takes place.

TREND OF CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

Although a number of differing patterns of curriculum organization are utilized in present elementary school practice, changes designed to shape the educational program more nearly to child development and social advance show a clearly

evolving trend. Subsequent paragraphs briefly describe existing curriculum patterns that, in unmodified form, may be used to illustrate the main stages of the curriculum trend and indicate how the modern elementary school draws on essential elements of many established patterns for the organization of a curriculum to meet the needs of its pupils.

Subject-field organization. The curriculum pattern most common in the elementary schools of the day is the traditional program of studies. Early characterized by formalized skill-and-information material, with daily lesson plans and time allotments, this form of organization has been considerably liberalized by introduction of the unit method and correlation procedures. The most promising development of the subject-field pattern has undoubtedly been the concept of "broad fields," which permits its use as a transitional medium or vehicle between the old and new in curriculum planning and practice.

Activity curriculum. Although numerous concepts have been held regarding what constitutes the "activity curriculum," the consensus is that its dominating characteristic is emphasis on basic interests and needs of children. Whatever develops as a learning enterprise or whatever project progresses under the activity conception of the curriculum, the interests of the pupil constitute the starting point. For this reason, it has often been designated as "child-centered."

Areas-of-living pattern. The distinguishing feature of this type of organization is the use of broad social areas or problems of living as the foundation for construction of the curriculum, such as "protecting life and health," "practicing democratic citizenship," and "enjoying wholesome leisure." This form of organization cuts across subject fields and utilizes both the nature of the child and the needs of society. Its advent marked a major development in curriculum organization.

The elementary school utilizes elements of many patterns in developing its curriculum. The chief trend to be observed in the foregoing curriculum patterns is an increasing attention

to, and use of, children's experiences as an essential factor in the educative process. The fact that each pattern contains basic educational elements indicates that curriculum making of a fundamental nature is a complex process with altogether too many facets to be confined within a single pattern of the types enumerated. The program of curriculum development described in subsequent pages is based upon the guidance of pupils in the experiences of successful daily living. It draws, as will be observed, on principles of the social areas idea in its philosophy and framework, includes elements of the activity program to insure attention to children's needs, and uses the established school subjects to make learning experiences intelligent and effective for pupils.

THE SCHOOL DETERMINES THE ACTIVITIES OF LIVING

Because the experiences and activities of wholesome daily living constitute the curriculum, the principal and teachers of the individual elementary school set up the co-operative machinery for determining what these activities are and for making them the basis of the curriculum. A council that is representative of the various learning fields and levels of the school, the homes of the pupils, the lay areas of the life of the community, and the pupil leadership of the school should be organized to express the things that the community would most want its children to cherish and do in childhood, youth, and adulthood.

Statement of philosophy and aims. The first step that should be taken by a committee of a council of the type described is to develop a statement of philosophy of education as a basis for the school's program. This statement would serve to formulate and publicize the main goals that the schools are to strive to achieve. This includes the pointing out, in general terms, of basic changes in daily living; advances in knowledge of how children learn; new conditions in local, national, and world communities; recent discoveries regarding children's growth;

and the modern conception of the place of the school in the community.

The initial statements of philosophy issued by the committee should be regarded as tentative and should be submitted for study and discussion to all members of the school staff, to the parent-teacher association, to other neighborhood organizations, and to citizens generally. Criticisms and suggestions should be utilized as bases for review of the original statement, revised statements should be issued for further study and discussion, and the processes of inviting amendments and making revisions should be repeated until the committee is able to issue a report that can be accepted as basic policy upon which curriculum building of a fundamental nature can be carried out.

The philosophy should be stated in a form brief enough to be conveniently used by teachers, parents, and pupils. Often it is advantageous to put it in the form of a "creed." If the system of which the individual school is a part has, through central-office action, adopted a statement of philosophy and aims for the total system, the school may incorporate many of the items of such a statement into a creed to fit its own local situation. The Chicago Public Schools, for example, have issued a statement of philosophy setting forth that education (1) serves all people in a democracy, (2) develops democratic ideals, (3) changes behavior, (4) deals with all aspects of life, (5) functions through many agencies, (6) continues throughout life, (7) aims at self-direction, and (8) provides adjustment to social change.

Scope and continuity of the curriculum. With the ideals and aspirations of the good life—and consequently of the educational program—of the community expressed through the philosophy statement or creed, the council should have another committee draft an outline of the scope and sequence of the educational program. The scope of the curriculum is a framework for all the learning experiences of the educational pro-

gram. It is determined by analyzing democratic daily living to discover the things essential for pupils to learn in order to be successful members of American society. For learning purposes, these essential human experiences are classified into major areas or functions of living. These functions are in turn divided into aspects or problems that are made the basis for classroom units of learning. The functions are also of marked service in giving balance to learning experiences and in unifying activities of various areas of the school program.

Herbert Spencer was among the first to make classifications of human living for educational purposes, his five areas being (1) life and health, (2) earning a living, (3) rearing a family, (4) citizenship, and (5) leisure. The Seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education—health, fundamental processes, leisure, citizenship, worthy home membership, vocation, and ethical character—will readily occur to school workers. Tulsa, Oklahoma, based its secondary program on five major aspects of life: (1) personal development, (2) immediate social problems, (3) broad social problems, (4) sociopolitical relationships, and (5) economic relationships. The committee for the Mississippi State Program, after making an exhaustive study of thirty-eight different sets of classifications, accepted the following nine functions of living: (1) protecting life and health, (2) getting a living, (3) making a home, (4) expressing religious impulses, (5) satisfying esthetic desires, (6) securing education, (7) co-operating in social and civic action, (8) engaging in recreation, and (9) improving material conditions.

Sequence, the second responsibility of the committee, deals with the order in which the learning experiences derived from the major functions of living are met by the pupils. The pupils are to have the learning experiences in relation to the progress of their mental and physical development. The main role of sequence is to guide teachers and pupils at each grade level in selecting patterns of pupil experiences essential to understanding and meeting the varied problems of social living.

ACTIVITIES OF LIVING ARE TRANSLATED INTO
AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The activities selected in the process of outlining the scope and continuity of the educational program should be placed according to developmental levels of pupil growth such as infancy, early childhood, later childhood, adolescence, and early adulthood. The next step is to allocate the activities to the various learning areas of the school program. The areas in which learning takes place include the subject fields, auditorium, lunchroom, corridors, guidance center, health office, school clubs, home, and community organizations—in short, all areas where the living and learning of the pupil take place.

Basic experiences or activities of living are expressed in terms of group or individual learning enterprises. It is often advantageous to issue outlines for these in the form of teaching and learning aids, such as courses of study. Because there are numerous activities in each major function of living, it is helpful to develop comprehensive outlines of these in the form of source materials, sometimes called "resource units." The activities that are particularly significant for a given grade level or stage of pupil growth should be put in the form of "teaching and learning units" as guides or "leads" for classroom use.

Conditions basic to learning process must be provided. There are a number of attendant factors that are basic to the type of curriculum here described and that must be provided if curriculum making in the individual school is to prosper.

The personnel for guiding pupil learning must be extended beyond the teaching staff to include parents, lay members of the community, and pupil leaders. Principal and teachers must take the lead in determining the distinctive roles of teacher and lay citizens in the guidance process and the relationships that should govern their working together. Assuredly, the teacher takes the main responsibility for guiding the learning experiences of the pupil, enlisting parents and others to assist, and co-ordinating their efforts with those of the school staff.

A second factor involved in curriculum making is an understanding on the part of all teachers of the two main types of teaching and learning in the elementary school curriculum. One is the co-operative, social-living enterprise, in which a significant aspect of everyday living is jointly planned and carried out by teacher and pupils. It has no minimum essentials or graded standards of achievement, and its work is individualized on such bases as interests, abilities, special aptitudes, and social backgrounds of pupils. The test of this type of teaching and learning is how well it is practiced in current and future daily living. It is the final end and objective of all education. The second main type of teaching and learning is the acquisition of technical skills and information, such as reading techniques, number fundamentals, spelling, handwriting, and the like. These are mainly organized in blocks of work, have minimum essentials, subject-matter continuity, and specific standards of achievement, and are individualized on the basis of rate of progress and horizontal enrichment. They are never ends in themselves; they are always means to better learning of the social co-operative type of enterprise.

The complete setting for the educative process—namely, the school world, the home, and the community—must be prepared for co-operative, understanding participation in curriculum making. Surveys should be conducted to discover the educational facilities and services of the community, so that it may be used as a true curriculum laboratory. Parents must be contacted, primarily through the pupils and secondarily through associational means, to gain their co-operation in making the home a realistic partner of the school. Even before the home and community, staff personnel must co-operatively take stock of the school world as a place in which to try out, revise, and improve the curriculum as it is planned.

Finally, the stage must be set for the employment of American democratic ways throughout. This begins in the classroom itself, permeates the activities and administration of all phases

of school living, and extends beyond school walls into the guidance of learning activity in home and community.

CO-OPERATIVE LEARNING ENTERPRISES MUST BE PURPOSEFUL AND REALISTIC

One of the first principles of the co-operative democratic procedure that characterizes the modern curriculum is that the pupils share the purposes of the learning activities with the teacher as far as permitted by their respective stages of growth. This is accomplished chiefly by relating classroom activities to current and future living from the start.

Kindergarten-primary level a realistic starting point. Fortunately, the place where the conventional school impinges most closely on everyday living is at the kindergarten-primary level. This is undoubtedly because of its direct connection with the preschool level in which fundamental learnings in language, safety, health, and social adjustment normally proceed at an extremely rapid rate. The nursery-kindergarten-primary level is also still closely allied with the home and parent guidance. Its learning units on making a house, conducting a store, raising chicks, and having a post office are all a part of everyday living. In making its curriculum, the individual school should build its curriculum for the succeeding grades on the realistic gains made in the kindergarten-primary grades.

Pupil understanding of the purposes of the learning enterprise. One of the first prerequisites to effective learning is that the pupils understand thoroughly the purpose of the things they do. Yet the academic-centered school continually disregards this fundamental element of the educative process. There is no reason why pupils should not be guided from the beginning to the understanding that they come to school to learn to live intelligently and richly and that all activities of the school are directed to this end. When they are thus taken into partnership with respect to the main purpose of the curriculum, they can be guided to see more readily the need for co-operative learning enterprises such as "Obtaining Our Water Sup-

ply," "Reading a Newspaper Intelligently," or "Spending Our Money Wisely," as well as the need for acquiring the reading, number, and handwriting skills to carry out such social enterprises effectively.

The learning unit or enterprise is thus not imposed on the pupils. By leading pupils to review important living enterprises that they have already carried out and to name important things yet to be done, the teacher can guide the class to select an enterprise suitable to the situation or to understand why the unit of learning designated by the course of study is fitting at that stage and place. This process is aided when the pupils reach the stage where they can see the major functions, such as "Protecting Life and Health," "Enjoying Wholesome Leisure," or "Improving Family Living," as divisions of the entire program of learning to live effectively, and where they can see the contribution of the various subject fields to carrying out significant activities of the major functions.

This placing of the unit or enterprise in the field of living and learning assists in developing the understanding by pupils of what the enterprise is and why they should undertake it.

The learning unit as a daily-life enterprise. Once the pupils understand what the learning project is and why it should be undertaken, they carry it out much as any group in lay living would carry out a co-operative undertaking. Under the guidance of the teacher, they decide what the basic activities should be, how they should be accomplished, and who should be assigned to each. This involves careful individualization of the work. As the work on the enterprise proceeds, stock is taken periodically of the progress of the work groups in order better to co-ordinate the work and shape the direction that the enterprise should take. Each work group makes a final report to the class in the form of a floor talk, a dramatic presentation, a workable exhibit, a set of slides, a duplicated report, or whatever medium they select for presenting their work to the total class.

The learning enterprise is culminated by a co-operative evaluation of the findings of each work group, and a discussion and

synthesis of these findings under the leadership of the teacher. The apex of the enterprise—the final test of its effectiveness and worth—resides in the extent to which the pupils put its findings into practice in their current and future living.

FUNDAMENTAL SKILLS AND INFORMATION—MEANS TO SUCCESSFUL LIVING AND LEARNING

The fundamental skills, such as reading, arithmetic, spelling, handwriting, and formal aspects of composition are always learned, as has been stated, as aids or means to carrying out intelligently and effectively the significant activities of successful democratic living. They are tools for living and learning the curriculum effectively. The units of learning in the skill fields are organized into "blocks" of material instead of significant aspects of living. These blocks or units of work usually have logical sequence from unit to unit or within a unit itself.

Proficiency in the fundamental skills is obtained mainly through drill techniques. Unlike the co-operative enterprise, there are minimum essentials that all pupils must master, each phase being a prerequisite to the next. The pupil's work in this type of learning must be almost altogether on an individual basis, in accordance with his ability to progress. Such socialization as exists is based mainly on classroom routines in which the pupils assist the teacher and one another in matters of passing materials, checking papers, and keeping records of individual progress.

The fundamental skills, as has been stated, are always learned in relation to social needs, that is, pupils are guided to understand the necessity to master these skills if they are to accomplish the co-operative social enterprises of the classroom and the related activities of daily living in such areas as health, citizenship, economic effectiveness, and recreation. The tool skills and informations are, in fact, best learned through drills that take place within the co-operative enterprise or other social undertaking. When lack of proficiency in a skill sufficient to affect the success of the entire enterprise itself is noted, drill

is carried on until the proficiency is such that the enterprise can be carried on effectively.

THE PATTERN OF THE CURRICULUM SHOULD BE CO-OPERATIVELY DETERMINED

The curriculum of the elementary school should be co-operatively planned from the earliest levels of pupil development. It should take into account, and capitalize on, the best elements of preschool education.

The learnings of the preschool period are noted. First of the stages of development to be considered in the curriculum is the period of infancy, which usually covers the preschool period up to the time when the child is five years old. This period has, as some of its chief characteristics, rapid physical development; steady growth of motor development; discovery through touch, taste, and smell; display of marked activity; and liking for active and imaginative play.

In initiating its program of realistic living and learning, the co-operative committee of the individual school lists the activities especially suited to the characteristics of the child and the experiences that the child has had in the home before entrance to nursery school or early kindergarten. The committee recognizes the vast amount of learning the child has before the school receives him as a pupil. The child has already learned a language, how to feed himself, many elements of safety, elimination processes, use of clothes, and adjustment to social living in the sphere of the family and home surroundings. He has acquired the beginnings of a vocabulary, and in many instances his oral composition is markedly accurate in form. He develops many social, physical, and spiritual attitudes and practices essential to community living.

The kindergarten-primary program is based on preschool learnings. The programs of nursery and early kindergarten are based almost entirely on the extension of preschool activities of home living. The curriculum stresses habits of play, practice in getting along peaceably with playfellows, routines of rest,

good eating habits, practice of safety rules, rhythmic exercises, singing for pleasure, listening to stories, caring for toys, and the like. Thus the school pursues the learning of adjustment to, and practice of, the activities of wholesome living at the infancy level.

Next, the school program extends its activities, in advanced kindergarten and first grade, to add the beginnings of the academic tools of learning. The basic activities of the early kindergarten are continued at a more advanced level of challenge and difficulty in the second year of the kindergarten work, but the pupils are introduced to the need for written symbols to record important things about these activities. This brings out the necessity for written labels for the various things connected with the activities and the need for further word symbols to describe and tell about the part that these things play in the activities. Of course, the pupil also sees others using the written symbols in books, newspapers, and labels about the home and other places in the world of his experience. Through purposes of his kindergarten and first-grade social experiences and imitation of parents and those about him, he is motivated to learn how to recognize words and follow the building of sentences.

Reading readiness is basic to effective primary work. The kindergarten-primary program cannot be effectively initiated until a workable experiential background is developed. The pupil must have sufficient experiences of a meaningful nature to make the words used for reading purposes real to him. The school capitalizes on his preschool living and his kindergarten activities, and in addition adds experiences in the first grade, to give the pupil an ever-increasing contact with the purposes of words and sentences. It supplements these by visits of the class to the neighborhood stores, post office, fire station, parks, beaches, the farm, the zoo, the airport, and the like, on which it builds stories in oral and printed form. The pupil begins, and advances in, the acquisition of the skill techniques of first-grade reading, and indeed all other work of the first grade, as

he becomes possessed of an experiential background that may be characterized as actual reading readiness.

The kindergarten-primary program develops readiness in numbers. Although formal work in arithmetic is not started as early as the first grade, pupils begin informal practices in numbers based as closely as possible on the same types of experiences that develop reading readiness. They are guided to do simple counting of familiar objects and to arrange these in order—first, second, third, and so on—and in two's and three's. They are led to recognize simple geometric forms such as the circle, triangle, and square; to understand quantitative terms dealing with day, week, long, short, weight, coins, and the like; and to listen to stories and poems containing number expressions.

Social studies have early beginnings. It is essential that interests of children regarding people and their relation to the world about them be made the basis of effective socialization as early as the first year of kindergarten. Through such varied activities as group planning, dramatic play, rhythms, creative expression, manual arts, and other phases of kindergarten activities, the pupil develops desirable attitudes and habits, emotional balance, and numerous social skills.

The upper kindergarten and first grade focus the pupil's attention on the workings of the main elements in his world—the school, the home, and the community. The people in these areas of the child's world become the subject of observation and discussion. In the school, for example, the principal, teachers, engineer, nurse, and others, together with their activities and services, are studied. Home activities observed and discussed include the house, its activities, responsibilities of parents, recreations of family members, and housekeeping activities. The celebration of special holidays, the significance of the Red Cross, and the need for clean-up campaigns, good lawns, and the like also have a civic lesson for the pupils of the kindergarten-primary period.

In the first grade, the activities of school, home, and com-

munity are observed in more specialized aspects. The houses that we live in are considered in more detail. The kind of things that children can do to help in the home are stressed. At school the playground and corridors become matters of discussion; and in the community such areas as the grocery store, the neighborhood, and the activities that go on in these and other places within the range of the pupils' own world become the focus of classroom interest.

Other subject beginnings. In the kindergarten are initiated such subject fields as art, which deals with manipulation through scribbling, daubing, creative decoration, and observation of beautiful objects. Music is begun through listening, rhythmical activities, singing, and imitation of musical sounds of daily life. Science has its beginnings in observation and discussion of the seasons' changes and characteristics, the kinds of flowers, the weather, and the heavenly bodies. Safety, health, physical education, and the practical arts are initiated through the socialized activities of the kindergarten play and work.

THE PRIMARY PROGRAM SERVES THE PERIOD OF EARLY CHILDHOOD

The education of the child is built upon, and extended from, the home and school experiences of "infancy" as he passes into and through the period of "early childhood." The stage of early childhood includes approximately the sixth, seventh, and eighth years of the pupil's life. It is characterized by far steadier and slower physical growth than the period of infancy. The pupil's muscular development is uneven and incomplete, with large muscles of arms and legs well developed, but smaller muscles of hands and fingers only beginning to develop. The eye muscles are immature and susceptible to easy strain. The child learns best through concrete terms and activity, but his interest span is short. Pupils at the early childhood period are inclined to change from mixed-sex to same-sex friendships and play.

They are sensitive to criticism but thrive on the interest and approval of adults.

Reading techniques grow out of experiences. When the pupil has had numerous experiences, has become acquainted with the world about, and has listened to many stories and handled many pictured story books, he has usually acquired an eagerness to read. He has read many chart stories built around his experiences and acquired a vocabulary that is meaningful to him; consequently, he is given a book. In the first grade he embarks upon the mechanics of reading, including the grasping of complete sentences, such phonetics as assists in word recognition, and following lines from left to right. Pupils who have similar reading abilities are grouped together, but the work is individualized according to the pupil's ability and maturity, and reading growth is measured in terms of individual progress rather than by comparison with other pupils. Understanding and enjoyment of reading at whatever level the pupil has attained, rather than set standards to be reached in each grade, are the reading outcomes sought in the primary grades.

Language, spelling, and handwriting. The pupil of six to eight should learn to express what he has to say either in speech or writing. Written language involves learning to spell. Oral language predominates in the primary grades, because it is a part of virtually every classroom activity. Discussing plans for activities, carrying on conversations in and out of class, reporting on school and home activities, repeating stories, and answering questions give ample opportunity for purposeful language practice. In written language, pupils become interested in mastering writing skills when they feel the desire to write as a result of their experiences. Manuscript writing is taught in the early elementary grades because it is like the printed page, easy to learn and easy to do. Much of the early writing is group writing; that is, the group composes stories that they tell to the teacher who writes the stories on the board for the pupils to copy. Notes to parents often provide effective material for the writing of primary pupils. The pupil learns

spelling as he increases his vocabulary, writes his name, and makes labels and signs. He learns the letters of the alphabet as he encounters them, and by the end of the first grade he should know all of them. He begins definite spelling lessons based on his experiences as early as the first grade.

Arithmetic in the primary grades. By the time the child enters the first grade his experiences have acquainted him with such number facts as the number of fingers and toes he has, the cost of certain candies, his age, a dozen eggs, and the like. In the first grade he may take part in Junior Red Cross, play store, count pupils and books, note page sequences in books, and otherwise advance his experiences dealing with numbers. In the second grade he may use real money in post office or market experiences and play games involving counting. He is given drills to fix simple number facts, such as addition and subtraction combinations through ten, read and write numbers up to one hundred, and use numbers as skills in class work and games.

Social studies. The social-studies work of the primary grades plays a large role, not only in socializing activities for pupils, but also in providing a core through which skills in reading, spelling, writing, and numbers are developed. Because most children at this age are interested in activities growing out of their living in school, home, and neighborhood, such socializing projects as the fire station, playhouse, post office, or farm are predominant. Enterprises of this type involve the socializing feature of expressing ideas, exchanging suggestions, making trips together, and finally evaluating co-operatively what has been accomplished. In constructing table and floor models, the pupil practices manual skills of handling tools and working with clay and paints. The small-group activities involved in the varied activities of the undertaking provide opportunities for effective leadership and co-operation, and the pupil's experiences develop his understanding of and appreciation for the responsibilities of elders and his own membership in his home and school worlds.

Science and physical education. Science in the primary grades trains the pupil in exploring his environment and utilizing the tools of observation and experimentation. What happens in nature through workings of weather, soils, water, air, heat, and animal and plant life become matters of observation and study. Science also provides sound beginnings for learnings in health, including such matters as proper food, rest, and cleanliness. The school program should provide for daily inspections to prevent communicable diseases, for training in washing hands, using handkerchiefs, and practicing sanitation in use of toilets and drinking fountains. Habits of eating nourishing and well-balanced meals, brushing teeth, and taking regular baths can be achieved by co-operative effort of teachers with parents. The physical education work of the school complements the health work of science through guidance of the child in bodily exercises, featuring rhythms, games, and group contests. The emotional and mental health of the pupil is also developed through the joyful recreation, practices of sportsmanship, and thoughtfulness for others that are essential elements of physical education guidance.

Arts, crafts, and music. Creative work in such mediums of expression as paint, clay, crayons, wood, and the like feature the art work of the primary pupil. Chiefly, the pupil puts into form his own feelings and thoughts without too much concern being felt by teachers for formal art rules. Skills in handling both tools and materials are developed. Essentially, the pupil is guided to observe his world and to take pleasure in expressing his own impressions of the things about him. All the time, he is led to practice initiative, creativeness, and originality.

In music, the pupil learns songs that are simple and that he can use for enjoyment in work and play. Although note reading and related techniques are not stressed, the pupil is trained to recognize the up and down of notes and to carry a tune. Work started in kindergarten in rhythms; in responding to music by skipping, running, and clapping; and in recognizing music in the sounds of the world about him is further developed. The

radio and phonograph are used to give the pupil opportunities to hear folk, classic, and modern music. The pupil is guided to use music, regardless of his ability in it, as an emotional outlet for expressing joy and pleasure.

Socializing activities about the school. The pupil at the primary level lives very consciously the noninstructional experiences of the classroom, the recess period, and the trips to and from school, and learns exceedingly through these. Following the safety directions of the safety patrol; learning to play enjoyably at the recess period; sharing experiences with pupils older and younger than he is; using the lunchroom, fountain, and toilet facilities; and participating in parties and picnics are all valuable learning experiences. These socializing activities must receive the attention of principal and teachers, to the end that the pupil feels himself truly "belonging" in his small school world.

THE INTERMEDIATE PROGRAM INTRODUCES NEW ELEMENTS

In the primary grades, as has been seen, the pupil has been engaged in acquiring beginnings in techniques of social living and in the tools of academic learning by which social living is advanced. The tools of academic learning involved are almost wholly tools of communication. The pupil, of course, has also acquired a groundwork in other, more "earthy" ways of learning, such as observing, constructing, dramatizing, judging, demonstrating, seeing, and the like.

As respects the three R's, it is considered that the pupil, on completing the primary grades, has sufficient proficiency to use the tools in acquiring academic information useful to the solution of his problems of social living. The intermediate stage of the elementary school, therefore, is marked by the acquirement of more mature social experiences and the continuance of improving skill in using the tools of learning to make these experiences more purposeful and more contributive to effective daily living.

Characteristics of intermediate-grade pupil. The intermediate program, of course, must conform to the growth characteristics of the pupil nine to eleven years of age. The pupil in this period passes out of the stage of early childhood, through the years of later childhood, and often enters the stage of pre-adolescence. At the period of later childhood, the pupil is capable of sustained interests, though susceptible to easy fatigue. He has acquired finer motor co-ordinations that make work in drawing, handwriting, and the crafts easier for him. Though competitive in nature, he responds to group activities and becomes interested in social organizations, community activities, and ways of living in other countries.

Guiding social learning experiences of the intermediate-grades pupil. The period of the middle grades of the elementary school is crucial in its potentialities for guidance in pupil living and learning, because it marks the time when the pupil is first equipped for a measure of independent work and self-reliance in his attack on problems of learning. His acquisition, in the primary grades, of the tools of reading, writing, and numbers, in addition to improved ways of viewing, discussing, constructing, and observing, have prepared him for this measure of self-guidance. Inasmuch as the pupil is in the second stage of individualization where changes in behavior take the form of improved social attitudes and activities, it is particularly fitting that he can utilize the learning equipment acquired in the primary grades.

In the primary grades, the pupil dealt in a first-hand way with actual living experiences of his own, in the very immediate environment of his school, his home, his neighborhood, and some of the most important factors in that neighborhood such as the grocery store, post office, parks, and library. In the intermediate grades, he extends the sphere of his experiences, both physically through his increased physical development, and vicariously, through reading, radio, television, and motion pictures.

Social studies are an important medium for social learnings

in the middle grades. The living of peoples in other lands, particularly where this living is primitive or simple, is usually a significant part of the curriculum of the middle grades. It undoubtedly serves a twofold purpose, in that it gives pupils an opportunity to see phases of their own living in a much less complex and more easily grasped setting than exists in their own community, and it brings variety and color to the study of these phases. Life among the Eskimos, the American Indians, and the early pioneers provides simplicity; and living in China, Japan, and other parts of the Orient, as well as Africa and Australia, gives needed variety and interest.

In this stage of the elementary school program, too, the study of food, clothing, and shelter takes the pupil into communities beyond his own that have a bearing on important aspects of his own living. Such factors of living as transportation, communication, and ways of work take the pupil beyond his immediate neighborhood environment.

The lessons of adaptation to physical environment are brought home to the pupil through study of life in cold and hot deserts, in lowlands, highlands, islands, and jungles.

The elements of time and their effect on living are made learning resources through consideration of how man lived in primitive, in ancient, and in Middle-Ages eras. Orientation in political relationships of other peoples to us is obtained through historical and geographical information regarding our political possessions and our northern and southern neighbors.

How to relate these learnings that have their setting in place and time beyond the immediate living and learning situations of the pupils is a major curriculum problem of the intermediate grades.

Science contributes to social attitudes and activities. In the intermediate grades, science concepts and techniques are acquired as means to improved understandings and action. The physical environment is studied and observed with particular reference to seasons and what they bring to the plant and animal world. Insect, bird, and fish life; the role of seeds and

plant changes; the movements of the heavenly bodies; the motion of the earth; the growth of grains and trees; the adaptation of both plants and animals to their environment; and man's machines for the control and use of natural forces—how all these affect man's living are made tools for advancing pupils' thinking, feeling, and acting at the intermediate-grade level.

Improvement of health and safety education. The improvement of habits of exercise, rest, and choice of food are stressed through the work in the classrooms, particularly in science and physical education, and guided in the daily living of the pupils with the assistance of teachers and pupil leaders in charge of activities about corridors and playgrounds, with the aid of school lunchroom attendants, school nurse, and janitors, and with the co-operation of parents. The prevention of disease is emphasized through instruction in safeguards and through daily inspection by teachers with referrals of serious suspects to the school physician. Co-operation with the parents is utilized to insure the pupils' seeing the doctor at least once, and the dentist at least twice, during the year.

The formation of safety habits is made a part of the program for preserving life and health. To develop pupil habits and attitudes of orderliness and care in the use of tools, fire, and other materials of living in home and school is an important factor in safety training. Avoidance of running in school corridors and of rough play on school grounds, as well as continued vigilance regarding street traffic, are essential ingredients in the safety program.

Language arts in the intermediate program. As has been noted, the skills of language are not neglected, even though reading and other phases of language are being used as tools. The range of reading includes social-studies and other subject-field materials, but the processes of reading also are stressed with respect to the various functions of reading. Reading for specific purposes such as following directions, finding answers to particular questions, and organizing simple reports

essential informations and skills, such as reading, writing, and arithmetical abilities, are of course developed here as at all levels of pupil maturity, but there is more room for pupil independence and initiative in participation in both class and extra-class phases of all the work.

The organization of school life is made more diversified than in Grades 1 to 6. There is more departmentalization, with the introduction of exploratory materials. Pupils are given greater opportunities for leadership through school marshals and patrol work, and through assistance to teachers in planning class and extra-class activities. New subjects, such as home mechanics, industrial arts, exploratory courses in mathematics and languages, and introductory courses in typing and business training are incorporated, at times on an elective basis, into the curriculum. In short, the work of the seventh and eighth grades forms a type of transition from elementary to secondary education.

SCHOOL INTEGRATING ACTIVITIES

Certain activities of the school are especially advantageous in providing integrating experiences for the pupils, such as those centering about the homeroom, assemblies, library, school newspaper, savings bank, and community fetes and pageants. Such agencies supplement and serve the classroom work itself, and at the same time provide lifelike, vestibule activities that constitute an introduction to effective daily living in the outside world.

The civic association. Pupils should be provided with a civic association through which they may participate in governing the living in their school world. The civic association should have the homeroom as its basic local unit, and delegates from each homeroom should form a central, or students', council. The school civic movements, designed to train the pupils to cooperate with groups, should be correlated systematically with the class work in social studies.

The homeroom. The homeroom provides the key to many

kinds of group activities. Under the single-room, self-contained classroom plan of organization, social activities must be organized with the pupils of a given room as a group, or with the pupils and teachers of two rooms working together. A period may be set aside each week for special interests or special activities in the homeroom. Likewise, in the homeroom, recreational groups or room teams, as well as civic clubs, may be developed. When the upper grades are departmentalized, a group of rooms may work together to make possible a larger variety of activities, such as major and minor leagues for sports or special-interest clubs.

It is in the civic activities, however, that the homeroom plays its most significant role as a school-integrating agency. The pupil civic association is most effectively organized for securing all-pupil representation and tie-up with the administration when the homeroom civic club is its local unit.

The school assembly. The school assembly, properly utilized, becomes a force in promoting school solidarity and developing school opinion. School civic movements for improved cleanliness, for safety, and for all extra-class activities can be fitted into the curriculum through the assembly.

The civic assembly provides an opportunity for town-meeting methods of airing and discussing problems of concern to the school world. Although the principal should not use the occasion for civic lectures to the pupils, he may arrange with the pupil civic-association officers who preside to present, and have presented, certain civic issues of general concern. Where the civic association has a schedule of monthly topics, these may be presented together with other civic problems of the day.

The special-interest clubs may give variety to assembly programs by furnishing numbers from time to time, and motion pictures may be utilized for recreational and educational values. Special days, such as Washington's Birthday, and Memorial Day, usually call for commemoration programs in the assembly.

The school library. The school library may be utilized for extra-class activities and serve as a medium through which civic, special, and recreational interests are adjusted to classroom and community activities. A pupil, for example, becomes a member of the home-garden club. In the library, he finds books on plant growing, and immediately sees new significance in elementary science in the classroom and also in the activities of gardening in the community. The school library may be made a center for the fruitful pursuit of extra-class interests through stimulating recreational reading.

The school newspaper. The school paper is an extra-class activity that, if effectively employed, may exert a great influence on the functioning of other pupil activities and school opinion. It may also be made a unifying influence in the life of the school. Special themes that need to be brought to the attention of the people of the community; outstanding literary productions of pupils; short stories, articles on club activities, and unique services of school agencies to the homes, such as school lunchroom, special classrooms, and the like—these all provide desirable material for the school newspaper.

Administrative aids to improve the curriculum. Taking the various attitudes of teachers toward the curriculum as a basis for study, the principal will find that he has a large responsibility in training the teachers to think clearly about curriculum materials. If he is unable to accomplish this task, it will probably not be accomplished by anyone else. Special supervisors may aid teachers in special fields, but they can scarcely be expected to clarify the thinking of the teachers with respect to the curriculum as a whole. General supervisors from a central office are not able to come into contact with individual teachers sufficiently frequently to direct the training of the teachers with respect to the curriculum problems that they have to meet in everyday classroom work. Even when curricula are sent out by the central office and teachers are permitted to make only a minimum of modification, the principal will find that he still has a very definite responsibility in directing the thought of his

teachers toward the curriculum. His problem, then, will be one of securing only such modification as is essential to the intelligent use of the curriculum materials by the teachers. Unless he is able to stimulate his teachers to evaluate critically curriculum materials, they will tend to become mechanical and formalized in their teaching.

In some systems so much freedom may be permitted with regard to the curriculum and the teachers may have so many options in the use of curriculum materials that instruction may suffer from demoralization unless it is directed by a very capable administrator. The principal of a school is responsible for directing the thinking of his teachers with respect to the curriculum so that the work for his school will be coherent and properly adjusted to the needs of the different groups of pupils. The assumption of the responsibility will increase the work of the principal; but it constitutes a type of guidance without which a teacher is not likely to make progress in her teaching, and it cannot be taken for granted that she will receive such guidance otherwise.

The school must accept responsibility for securing for the teacher suitable and adequate curriculum materials. Syllabi, textbooks, and general reference material are seldom adequate in themselves. Some may think that teachers are exorbitant in their demands for material, but the opinion is not justified by the facts. Generally the teachers would be justified in requesting much more curriculum material than is usually called for. They do not do so because they know that their requests would be futile. As a rule, the curriculum does not include the current material that the progressive teacher will know about. The alert teacher is constantly learning about new materials, and it is natural that she should desire to utilize them in her teaching. Many types of materials are not supplied on general requisition; they are not kept in stock for issuance to teachers. They must be secured by special action of the principal. Sometimes they cannot be secured even through board funds and must be obtained in other ways. The principal should have a petty-cash

account available upon which he can draw to supply new curriculum materials, and it is his duty so to organize his school that he can secure the materials needed.

Only rarely are supplementary materials provided in sufficient quantities to carry on the school work as *progressive teachers will desire to carry it on*. For this reason the principal must accept the responsibility for helping supply his teachers and classrooms with suitable curriculum materials for carrying on the work of instruction. Unless a principal can develop and provide enriched curriculum materials for his school, he can scarcely expect his teachers to accomplish the task alone. He must, therefore, become resourceful in accumulating curriculum materials. He must utilize available funds for the purchase of such materials. He should make out requisitions as *generously as budget provisions will allow*. He may draw on the public library in the community for materials of instruction. He may use the mimeograph and likewise the printing press in turning out certain materials. Some schools, which have been equipped with printing plants, have prepared, in printed form, examples of superior work in a higher grade for use in a lower grade. Other schools use the printing press for turning out certain types of materials, such as tests, outlines, and guide sheets, which *classroom teachers desire*. In some schools parent-teacher associations provide funds from which the principal can draw for current materials needed in instruction. If the geography teachers desire outline maps, the principal may have etchings prepared for use on the printing press so that the maps can be provided in quantities at a nominal cost. Examination papers, spelling lessons, and other text material can be prepared in a similar manner. The school is not entering into competition with the printing industries in turning out such materials for classroom use. It merely utilizes facilities at hand in providing types of materials that it would otherwise be required to do without.

Special enrichment materials. The principal should utilize visual aids, such as slides, pictures, and museum material, for

the enrichment of the curriculum. Most of the large school systems have departments of visual education from which it is possible to requisition slides and films. In many cities the schools have access to the slides and pictures furnished by public libraries, museums, art institutes, and the like. The principal should direct the attention of his teachers to such sources for materials and then set up the machinery for getting the materials into the school when they are needed. This can often be done by designating committees of the faculty who are made responsible for selecting and getting the materials. If the matter is left to chance, it is very probable that teachers will fail to avail themselves of the opportunity of using the supplementary helps. *Plans and procedures must be developed to make the materials easily available for classroom teachers.*

The principal can also utilize the material made available without cost by state and national associations, such as the National Safety Council, which supplies material of an educational nature for distribution to schools. Many industries have prepared educational material of great value for work in geography, history, and other content subjects and have made it available to schools at nominal cost. Subjects such as lumbering, forestry, oil products, steel products, and the manufacture of electrical appliances are treated in pamphlet form and are well illustrated. A great deal of local color can be given to work in geography and history when the schools avail themselves of concrete material of local interest. Such materials should be obtained by the principal rather than the individual teacher.

The principal must avoid in his solicitation of material from industries any type that has been prepared solely for purposes of advertising. He should not use the material of a firm that seeks merely to spread propaganda for its products among the children.

The curriculum must be made flexible. The curriculum is seldom sufficiently flexible to meet the needs of all teachers and classes, and someone must accept the responsibility for rendering it flexible. This task usually falls to the principal, who is

better equipped to modify curriculum materials than individual teachers. A principal cannot expect all the modifications in the curriculum to come by decree from the office of the superintendent. Adjustments of the curriculum to the needs of local schools or special groups must be made when the occasions arise.

The principal has a responsibility for correlating and articulating the different subjects of the curriculum, when this is *considered necessary*. For example, he should strive to uphold standards of English usage in the oral and written work of the school in all subjects. He should strive to eliminate waste and useless materials from the various subjects and to provide enrichment where it is possible. He should strive to focus the attention of the teachers on the development of the pupils instead of the subject matter of instruction and to help them to understand what the school, through its curriculum, seeks to accomplish for the pupils.

In securing the unification of curriculum materials, the principal should take the initiative by seeing that teachers who instruct similar groups of pupils in similar subjects understand the aims of instruction and the goals sought for all of the pupils. In a large school with several teachers instructing the same grade or half grade of pupils, it is highly important that the entire group receive approximately the same work. This may be done by holding group conferences with the teachers in which the work of the grade is considered. Objectives can be met and both the minimal and maximal courses agreed upon. In such conferences the younger teachers can receive a great deal of help from those longer in the work and should be much more closely guided by the principal than those with more experience. Through directing the group conferences of teachers, the principal will have the opportunity to make his contribution to the course of study used in the school.

Organization of the curriculum for teaching. The principal should study the curriculum with the idea of improving its organization for teaching purposes. It is important to know the

difference between good and poor types of organization. He should place the facilities of his office at the disposal of the teachers who desire to experiment with improved forms of curriculum organization. For example, one teacher may desire to organize curriculum material in teaching units, which involves the preparation of guide sheets for the pupils. The principal should provide office assistance for the teacher in the preparation of mimeographed guide sheets and tests for the use of the pupils under her instruction. In some schools certain teachers may be interested in the contract method of teaching. If so, then the principal should provide the teacher with assistance and criticism in the preparation of the contracts. Skeleton outlines of one sort or another may be desired by some teachers for the purpose of training the pupils in the processes of analysis and synthesis. If so, the principal's office should provide the clerical service that the execution of the plan requires; otherwise, the good intentions of the teachers may never be translated into action. Most teachers do not possess and are not expected to possess the facilities needed for getting out such work. The responsibility belongs to the principal, and he should so organize his office that he will be able to provide some clerical assistance for his teachers in the preparation of teaching materials.

Curriculum effectiveness should be tested. The principal should aid his teachers in the development of tests to measure curriculum effectiveness. Facilities for making better tests must be provided. Mimeograph service for use in the preparation of tests should be supplied. The principal should be prepared to give instruction and assistance in developing improved tests. Not all teachers will know how to make good tests, and most probably will require specific training; but all should have a desire to use good tests and will no doubt use them if they can be prepared. In addition to assistance in the matter of preparing tests, some of the teachers will need instruction in the proper method of administering tests. They may need to learn how to administer a time test if they desire to secure a measure

of what all pupils can do in a given time for purposes of comparison. The administration of a time test requires special training. The tests amount to very little if the teachers merely report the scores and file them as a sort of permanent exhibit for use when an interested visitor asks questions about the work. Tests are useless unless the results are interpreted. When a test has been administered and scored, all the potential aspects of a growth situation for both pupils and teachers exist, and the principal should utilize the results for discussion with his teachers. The test results stimulate and challenge thought on the part of the teachers.

The point has frequently been made that teachers have pride in their work and, if they are led to sense their classroom problems, will become intensely interested in the improvement of their work. Testing is an essential aspect of curriculum work. If a school has the best possible curriculum and no tests are developed to measure its effectiveness, the results will depend upon chance. Many principals are provided with progressive curricula that are used ineffectively because the teachers rely upon chance rather than upon exact measurement in securing results.

The standards for the evaluation of curriculum materials have been vague and poorly conceived. Textbook writers and publishers likewise have varied greatly the content, organization, and form of the text materials offered for classroom use in identical fields. But, in spite of the variation in practices with respect to curriculum materials, certain trends are beginning to appear. For example, it is now very generally recognized (1) that curriculum materials for any field or grade should be within the experience of the pupil, (2) that the materials should challenge the abilities of the pupil, (3) that the materials should possess immediate as well as ultimate values; (4) that the materials should be organized for effective use in classroom situations; and (5) that the materials should be so prepared that acquisition can be objectively measured.

Learning must be evaluated in terms of pupils' and alumni's

everyday living. It must be kept in mind, however, that the greatest factor in evaluating curriculum effectiveness is to be found in the daily living activities and experiences of the pupils.

This involves a long-range process. It involves the co-operation of many people, and particularly the assistance of the pupils themselves as they pass from childhood through youth and into adulthood. It involves, too, the development of new records and techniques to be used by principals and teachers. The redeeming part of this is, however, that it would be in line with newer practices respecting homes and community, thus not wholly an additional or specialized type of school activity. It is in keeping with the basic principle that the curriculum should consist of the everyday activities of living from infancy through adulthood.

SUMMARY

The foregoing discussion has brought out certain principles that should prove valuable to the school staff in the improvement of the curriculum.

First, *the leadership in improving the curriculum rests chiefly with the principal*. He cannot avoid or evade this important responsibility whether he wants to or not. He must work to improve the effectiveness of the curriculum by the improvement of its form, through the addition of valuable materials, by the elimination of waste and debris, by the employment of effective methods through the use of scientific measuring devices, and by setting up proper standards for evaluating subject matter. No one else in the system can assume this responsibility so well as the principal. He is equally interested with the teachers in the work of the pupils. He shares the responsibility with them for the progress that the pupils make. He cannot place the blame for failure solely on his teachers, nor can the teachers place the blame for failure solely on the principal. If either fails, both fail. The principal is in a position to direct, counsel, and give advice regarding the work of his teachers

from day to day. His interests should be as broad as the school itself. He should not fail to place proper emphasis on the effective development of the curriculum.

Second, *in improving the curriculum and teaching processes, the principal should utilize as fully as possible the services of his teachers and the community as a means of enlisting their active interest in its improvement.* Curriculum improvement may be considered a means of professional growth, even though its real purpose is the growth of pupils. The principal may be interested in the improvement of methods and the enrichment of curriculum materials, but he must not lose sight of the fact that the teachers will know better how to use these materials if they share with the principal in the responsibility of securing, organizing, and formulating them for teaching purposes. This duty imposes a heavy responsibility on the principal because he must win the co-operation of his teachers in order to realize the end for which he works.

Third, *the staff members should usually take the curriculum as they find it and through careful analysis ascertain the respects in which they can produce the greatest improvement in its form and content.* This means that the staff members of an elementary school must become students of the curriculum. They must analyze it to see whether there are phases in which it is unsatisfactory, and they must also ascertain its strength.

Fourth, *curriculum improvement by the faculty members is predicated on their knowledge of the pupils, parents, and economic conditions in the school community as much as it is on their knowledge of the curriculum itself.* The curriculum for any school must be prepared with the needs of the pupils in view. This is equivalent to stating that mere subject-matter knowledge will not suffice in making a curriculum. The principal and teachers must know the human aspects of the whole situation and must use their efforts to acquire and appreciate that knowledge as well as the special knowledge of their curriculum fields.

Fifth, *materials of local significance, when available, should*

be collected and used to enrich and vitalize the curriculum. Care must be exercised to avoid materials designed for propaganda. To a certain extent this is no doubt unavoidable. The value of local material lies in its intrinsic worth to the pupils of the local community.

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Extra-Class Learning Experiences

EXTRA-CLASS ACTIVITIES ARE USUALLY regarded as those activities in school that pupils undertake informally and spontaneously. There has nevertheless been a closely defined relationship between the extra-class or "pupil" activities and the work of the classrooms in elementary schools. This is in all probability because extra-class activities and experiences are chiefly affairs of the school world, an extremely significant area of pupil living, and so have been influenced to an appreciable degree by the atmosphere and work of the classrooms.

There is, accordingly, much evidence to indicate that the extra-class activities are outgrowths of classroom activity and that recent moves to incorporate pupil activities into the class work may not be as much of an innovation as has been commonly supposed. Previous pages have brought out the principle on which the present chapter is based; that is, that activities and experiences of a learning nature are not "extra" insofar as the curriculum is concerned but are indeed one with it.

FUNCTIONAL VALUES OF EXTRA-CLASS ACTIVITIES

Extra-class activities have been justified in the past on the basis that, inasmuch as pupils will associate in group and in-

dividual experiences anyway, the school should seek to direct and improve the character of the associations to the end that wholesome and beneficial, instead of unwholesome and detrimental, experiences may result. Direction and supervision of extra-class activities are, therefore, undertaken by the school to provide for the pupils training that would otherwise depend upon chance.

If, as a result of participation in extra-class activities, children learn how to live and get along with other children happily and successfully, the claim may be made that the values are comparable in importance with the values derived from classroom work. Inasmuch as both types of training are necessary and neither is adequate without the other, the relation between curriculum and extra-class activities is obviously complementary.

In the classroom, knowledge and understanding are acquired largely through reading and listening. The assimilative materials are often abstract and may appear artificial to the child; not so with the extra-class projects that enlist the co-operation of pupils for the realization of common ends. The extra-class activities frequently give a real savor to the life of the school. The experiences therein acquired result in genuine satisfactions to the pupils. The taste of successful endeavor in extra-class activities may vitalize the entire work of the school for a pupil and result in the enhancement of his morale.

It would be a mistake for the elementary-school principal and teacher to assume that extra-class experiences are of inappreciable value to elementary school children. Although extra-class activities are generally established on a larger and more comprehensive scale in the senior and junior high schools than in the elementary grades, there are, nevertheless, grounds for considering them fully as important in elementary schools as at secondary levels. For example, it has been found that children of Grades 3 to 6 have a decided tendency to associate in recreational activities consisting of games, sports, and club projects. This means that elementary school children are taking

on the modes of social behavior. Co-operation and team play may be accepted as objective evidence that socialization is taking place; that is, the individual is being transformed into a member of society.

In a sense extra-class activities may possess greater values for elementary school pupils than for pupils in the secondary school. Just as the kindergarten, through its program of social training, prepares the child for the formal work of the primary school, so does participation in extra-class activities in the elementary grades prepare the pupil for the assumption of responsibilities in the secondary period. The formation by a pupil of antisocial habits in the elementary school period as a result of neglect on the part of the school may interfere with the social development of the pupil at some later stage. Extra-class activities must, therefore, be conceived in relation to socialization. This is important and must receive attention at all stages of the child's development.

An elementary school must strive to present a program of education that will develop the many-sided character of a pupil. Informal as well as formal education must be organized and directed, because training is received by a pupil through participation in civic activities, recreation, and the pursuit of special interests. Because the experiences of children acquired outside of school vary markedly, the school must provide the opportunities for the children to acquire those social experiences considered fundamental to well-rounded development.

The school that seeks to provide a well-balanced program of education for its pupils must naturally direct the informal activities of the pupils in both school and community. This purpose cannot be realized if extra-class activities are discouraged or merely allowed to develop sporadically. A functional organization of activities should be developed that will make possible the balanced education of the pupils.

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING EXTRA-CLASS PROGRAMS

To be incorporated effectively in the curriculum, the program of pupil activities should be based on principles as broad

as, and directly related to, those controlling the program of studies itself. These principles can be stated in concise form and be so limited in number as to make them readily usable by teachers and pupils. They may be enumerated as follows:

1. Democracy of opportunity should be stressed.
2. Pupil activities should be directly related to classwork.
3. Activities should be related to future, as well as current, daily living.
4. Intrinsic values should be given more weight than tangible awards.
5. Well-rounded development of pupil personalities should receive primary consideration.

Not only principal and teachers but pupils, and particularly the pupils of the upper grades, should be familiar with, and able to apply with understanding, principles of the type listed. All should be guided by principles in their participation in the extra-class program. Only thus will the schedule of pupil activities become an intelligible, systematic, and purposeful element of the school's educational program.

WELL-ROUNDED PUPIL DEVELOPMENT

The curriculum of the school calls for development of pupils in terms of major functions of living, such as health, recreation, aesthetic impulses, and the like. The extra-class areas of the school's program provide, in effect, a field or arena wherein the theory and planning of the classroom in the chief functions of living may be carried out. Although the extra-class activities of the school world may not be organized in exact terms of the broad objectives of the total program, they may nevertheless be made more purposeful and usable to teachers and pupils by systematic organization in terms of types and functions.

With certain exceptions, pupil activities may be classed in four broad types: (1) civic service type of experiences, (2) special-interest clubs and organizations, (3) social-recreational affairs, and (4) school-integrating activities.

Because not all pupil activities of the school can be experienced by the individual pupil, the principle of well-rounded personalities can perhaps be most universally achieved by seeing that the pupil-activity program is planned to permit all pupils to have experience in each major type of activity. Thus, it would not be beyond the range of reasonable planning and schedule making to see that all pupils each year would perform a civic service; participate in a special-interest activity; attend a class party or school picnic; and utilize school library, assemblies, and other school-integrating agencies. The problem of the principal is how to organize and administer the types of activities described, in order that they may function as economical, efficient, and creative forces in the socialization of elementary school pupils. There are some pupils, for example, who may need no recreational encouragement but may need civic experiences. There are, on the other hand, pupils who would profit by recreational activities because of deficiencies in their methods of play or who need the sense of responsibility developed through participation in school control. All pupils must be included in an effective, comprehensive program of socialization through the extra-class activities. Subsequent sections are devoted to the description of the activities in each of the foregoing categories, with suggestions for successfully organizing a program of activities to meet pupil interests and needs.

CIVIC-SERVICE TYPES OF ACTIVITIES

The pupil civic association. In a modern school, activities should be provided that have for their purpose the training of the pupil to co-operate with peer groups. Voluntary association with other pupils in group undertakings of social importance is an experience often foreign to classroom work. However, its educative value to an individual may be greater than the lessons formally learned in class. It is, therefore, important that the school provide opportunities for the pupils to acquire civic experiences through membership in civic clubs,

improvement associations, or other organizations of similar character.

Homeroom civic clubs. The civic club can be utilized as the entering wedge in organizing the elementary school for social purposes. In the first place, the civic club may be launched very conveniently in the homeroom and, consequently, have the advantage of being guided by the homeroom teacher. The advantages of familiar surroundings and pupils well known to one another and the teacher in projecting a new enterprise for young children are by no means negligible. The organization required by a civic club is so simple that it may easily be adapted to practical uses in homeroom activities, such as promoting cleanliness and good appearance of the pupils, health practices, tack-board activities, and order and appearance of the homeroom.

The activities of the civic club may be correlated very conveniently with the formal instruction in civics. This relationship is often a factor in converting conservative teachers to a realization of the possibilities of extra-class activities for the social training of pupils.

In general, it is advisable to start on a small scale in organizing homeroom civic clubs, perhaps limiting the movement at first to the upper grades of the school or to teachers especially fitted to pioneer with a new activity and gradually extending the organization of clubs along lines that experience indicates are best fitted to the school or to the grade level desired. Frequently it may be found that both the form of the civic club and the methods of directing its activities will vary with the grade level of the homeroom. In some elementary schools, civic clubs with varying forms of organization and control have been organized in all rooms and grades of the school.

Central council. With the homeroom civic clubs established, it may be desired to organize a central council as a clearing house for the expression of pupil ideas and for utilizing the civic clubs in co-operative activities that affect the school as a whole. A natural and convenient means of accomplishing this

aim is to have a central council made up of officers elected by the pupil membership and to grant to each homeroom civic club representation in the central council, either through a special delegate from each homeroom or through the president of each homeroom's civic club. The central council may become a vital factor in the formation of pupil opinion or in gaining pupil co-operation in the school and community for projects inaugurated by the principal. For example, if a drive is undertaken to improve punctuality, the speech of pupils, or the care of school property, pupil action may be motivated through discussion of the project in the central council and the reports of the discussion by the room representatives to the homeroom civic clubs. Many school projects requiring pupil co-operation can be placed before the pupils more effectively by having the projects introduced by the president of the central council than by having them announced by the teachers as orders coming from the administrative office. The meetings of the central council should be held under the guidance and direction of a faculty sponsor for civic clubs, and, when possible, often with the principal present.

It is not sufficient, however, for the elementary school merely to develop the technical features of a civic organization, or to limit its activities to furthering administrative needs of the school. Pupils must be furnished with an abundance and variety of activities or interest in the clubs will soon languish. One source of material for club activity is the formation, under teacher guidance, of constitutions and by-laws to govern procedures of the clubs. Each room club may, in accordance with principles formulated through experimentation and approved by the principal, set up its own constitution. In like manner, the central council may formulate, under the guidance of the faculty sponsor, a constitution determining the sphere of action of the central council and the relation of the central council to the room clubs. Other matters of club interest in the determination of which the club member may participate are methods of

conducting elections, development of school creeds and pledges, and the form of club insignia.

Schedule of civic activities. Important as is participation in developing constitutions and other phases of the organization of the civic clubs, both from the point of view of materials involved and training acquired, the program, nevertheless, must look forward to continuous, functional activity on the part of the clubs in school and community enterprises. The clubs may constitute the chief medium in the school by which actual practice in acts of citizenship may be provided. Their functioning, however, cannot be left to accident or chance. It is essential that a definite schedule of civic projects be presented for the consideration of the room clubs throughout the semester or year. Thus, definite, systematic training in civic activities, based upon sound educational principles, may be assured. The principal may make the formulation of a schedule of civic projects with supporting civic materials a problem in professional growth for a committee of teachers under the chairmanship of the civic club sponsor. A civic project may be scheduled either for each week or each month, depending on the scope of the project and the frequency of the club meetings. It may also be desirable to present civic topics for discussion at the meetings of the club, such as co-operation, respect for property, use of leisure, punctuality, thrift, patriotism, courtesy, kindness, health, cleanliness, fair play, and safety.

Improvement movements. The program that includes improvement associations in the school will soon realize their value in developing habits of service and responsibility on the part of pupils. For example, clean-up squads to keep the building and ground clear of paper and other debris, if well organized, will soon show effects on the pupils' pride in the appearance of their school. This work should be so organized that most pupils of the school will have an opportunity to participate during a given semester. By giving the pupils of each room a definite period for accepting responsibility for the appearance of building and ground and by requesting teachers

to regulate the membership on the clean-up squad, most pupils may be given an opportunity during the semester to experience the civic responsibility described. Sometimes it is advisable for an upper-grade civic officer to accompany clean-up groups composed of children from the lower grades. A convenient period for each room squad to have charge of the appearance of building and ground is one week, because this period is more economical of time and effort in organizing and instructing squads, more easily scheduled, and better for teachers and pupils than a time span of one or two days. The clean-up squad may be effectively organized as a division of the room civic club.

Other types of improvement activities are those concerned with caring for lost and found articles; inspecting walls, fences, and toilets for evidence of defacement; collecting clothing for children in poor districts; conducting community clean-up campaigns; caring for the room used by children who bring their lunch from home; assisting in serving in the lunchroom in emergencies; making costumes for special programs, and writing letters to or visiting pupils who are ill.

One school's civic association program. The civic association of a school, organized to become a factor in the pupils' role of participation in the guiding of affairs in the pupil world, is illustrated by the following outline of the program of the Howland Elementary School, Chicago, Illinois:

1. *Organization of the Civic Association.*

(a) Each pupil in the school is a member of the Civic Association.

(b) Each room (Grades 3B-8A) creates a homeroom club, with the necessary officers, to act as the local agency of the Civic Association.

(c) The Civic Association has a total-school organization, with officers elected by the pupil body (third grade and up), to direct the activities of the association. These officers are President, Vice President, Secretary, and Treasurer, coming

from designated levels of the school, serving for a term of one year. (8A's are thus excluded from running for office, but they may hold office if elected while in 8B.) Campaigns, similar to political campaigns, are conducted by candidates for office. The Civic Association supervises the manner in which the campaigns are carried on.

(d) Each homeroom club, Grades 3B-8A, sends one boy and one girl representative to a Student Council, over which the President of the Civic Association presides.

(e) Homeroom clubs meet to consider proposals of the Student Council soon after meetings of the Council. Representatives are instructed for the next Council meeting by the room clubs.

(f) The Council is divided into committees whose function it is to observe and report on various phases of school life regularly at specified times, to the President, and to the Council, and at the Civic Association Assemblies.

(g) *One or more members of the faculty act as advisers.*

2. Promotion of activities.

(a) The Civic Association sponsors the school newspaper.

(b) The Civic Association produces hall posters of significance to the school life.

(c) The Civic Association, through committees, gathers information about various phases of school life, compiles and edits the committee reports, and issues a weekly bulletin to be read and discussed during room meetings.

(d) The Civic Association assumes responsibility for each class of the third grade and above to open its school day by the calling to order by the chairman of the room club, reading of the minutes of the previous day's activities, and after a few minutes turning the class over to the teacher.

(e) The Civic Association reports directly to the student body through several meetings held in the assembly hall during the course of the year.

(f) Officers of the Civic Association, the sponsors, and the principal meet regularly.

(g) Economic competence and responsibility are developed through the handling of fees for newspaper, entertainments, and the like. Room treasurers collect the dues, issue receipts and association membership cards to the pupils, and then deliver the money to the school office.

3. *Teacher participation.*

(a) Teachers foster democratic atmosphere within the room through guiding the co-operative planning of activities in the room club and through permitting the room chairman to open each day's work. The teacher's interest and example are motivating factors in homeroom club action.

(b) Teachers co-operate in the Civic Association program by whole-heartedly supporting activities sponsored by the Civic Association. Whole-hearted co-operation of the teachers will promote the success of the Civic Association.

4. *The Civic Association has achieved the following results:*

(a) Provides a means for the consideration and solution, in a democratic manner, of various problems of the school.

(b) Acts as the initiating and unifying agency for total-school civic activities.

(c) Acts as a clearinghouse for suggestions for improvement that may be offered by individual pupils or room groups.

(d) Provides opportunities for regular and frequent practice of the democratic process in situations of children's interest.

Relating civic association activities to social science. The test of civic learnings, like learnings in all other areas of the curriculum, lies in carrying out civic activities with the best guidance that teachers, parents, pupil leaders, and lay citizens can provide. Such guidance, of course, has its focus in the classroom, which, in the case of civic activities, is the classroom of social science, supplemented by the homeroom.

The beginnings of classroom guidance of civic experiences in the school world consist of units of learning based on civic association action. For example, a social science unit may consist of "Being an Active Member of the Wadsworth Civic Association." This involves discussion of the aims of the Civic Association, its history, its organization and schedules, its local functioning through the homeroom civic club, its total-school action through its central council, and the responsibilities involved in pupil membership. The test of the unit learnings is the record that the pupil makes as an active member of the association. Other units encountered at various grade levels deal with "Sharing in Wadsworth's Government," "Living and Working Democratically Together," "Participating in the School's Marshal Service" and "Conducting Civic Association Conventions and Elections."

As each unit is undertaken, classroom discussion relates the activities of the civic association in the school world to parallel action of citizens in the lay world. Such activities as election of delegates to the central council from the homeroom are studied and discussed in the light of the history and principles governing such action in American government.

Pupil participation in school control. Although pupil participation in school control is often assumed to belong particularly to the junior and senior high school units, elementary principals who are alert for possibilities of developing ideals of service, leadership, and responsibility organize their schools to provide for a marked degree of pupil participation in certain aspects of school government. Investigations of extra-class activities in the elementary schools show that most schools employ some form of pupil participation in school government. Thus pupil participation in school control may be considered an accepted activity for developing citizenship in elementary schools.

Safety patrol. The safety patrol is an organization through which pupils may participate in school control. The members of an efficient safety patrol not only conduct small children safely across hazardous streets, but also influence pupil be-

havior on the way to and from school and on the playground. The members of the patrol may be potent factors in conducting fire drills, in handling special processions and fetes, in reporting to the principal accidents to pupils, and in rendering first aid. The care with which the principal selects the sponsor is a decisive factor in the ultimate efficiency of the safety patrol. Usually the patrol is sponsored by the teacher of physical education, largely because of the element of drill that enters into the training of the patrol. If the teacher of physical education is assigned to the school only part time, as is often the case in smaller schools, or for any other reason is unsuited to direct the patrol, a teacher who is sympathetic and patient in handling boys and who is interested in the safety movement should be selected as sponsor. If a man is employed in the wood shop or other classrooms of the school, it is sometimes advisable to delegate the direction of the patrol to him, especially if he has initiative and commands the confidence of the older boys of the school.

With the selection of a good sponsor for the safety patrol, the school has taken the first step in avoiding many of the problems created by lack of leadership in this organization. The nature of the work of the boys on the patrol is exacting, often little appreciated by motorists and pedestrians alike, and in itself furnishes scant material reward. The boys serve at considerable personal sacrifice. It is essential, therefore, that the principal show his confidence in them and his appreciation of their services by having the sponsor deal reasonably with complaints and permit considerable participation by the members in selecting their officers and otherwise controlling the conditions under which they work. He may also secure pupil, teacher, and community appreciation of the services of the patrol. The principal should strive to maintain good morale in the patrol by securing extra equipment such as raincoats, ear muffs, and other protection from inclement weather; providing special play periods for them during school hours; and by giving them recognition by means of medals, certificates of

service, and citations in the school paper and assemblies for service of special merit. A loyal, well-trained safety patrol is of great value to the principal both in promoting citizenship practices among pupils and in maintaining a high standard of control in his school.

Organization of pupil assistants. Another organization that is used in some cities to provide a medium for pupil participation in the government of an elementary school is a staff of pupil assistants. This group of pupils is to the internal control of the school what the safety patrol is to the control of the school ground and streets. If the full values of pupil practice in citizenship are to be realized, the members of this staff will be important factors in the control of lines if marching is required, and in the maintenance of order in lavatories, lunchrooms, and assembly meetings. Furthermore, they may assist in the ringing of session bells, distributing supplies, and acting as messengers for the administrative office. Qualities of leadership, responsibility, co-operation, and service are developed in the pupils through service of the monitorial type.

In selecting the personnel of pupil assistants, it is advisable, in view of the close contact that these pupils have with administrative action, that the older and more responsible pupils be chosen. Such pupils will be more successful in setting examples, as leaders for the younger children, in the exercise of self-control. Moreover, the weight of leadership and responsibility furnishes this pupil officer with an honor and dignity that teachers and pupils generally feel should be the reward of a long and meritorious record in the school. The monitorship, in this respect, has much of the atmosphere and color characteristic of the office of marshal or aide in the college. As in the case of the college office, the monitorship may be considered an honorary position and should be won by the pupil in his final semester in the school.

Inasmuch as the service of the pupil assistants occupies a prominent place in the administration of the school and is often filled by pupils of the highest grade, it is usually advis-

basement and ground and another for the girls' basement and ground will suffice during intermissions. Often it is possible to utilize the services of the shop teacher for the boys and the home economics teacher for the girls in this capacity, because these teachers are usually free from the duties of caring for a homeroom section of pupils.

Co-ordination of pupil participation with administrative policy. The success of pupil participation in school control depends very largely on the skill of the principal in co-ordinating the activities of the pupils and their sponsors with his own administrative policies. To illustrate how co-ordination may be effected, many schools employ the following plan. In these schools the head assistant is delegated the responsibility for supervising the pupils during intermissions and before school opens in the morning. She is also sponsor of the pupil helpers and is responsible for the assignment and supervision of the teachers on duty in building and yard. The teacher of physical education is sponsor of the safety patrol and instructs pupils in group playground activity during intermissions. The teachers on yard duty are selected in regular rotation for a period of one week. The teachers are trained to give guidance to the pupil helpers in the management of pupils rather than to manage the pupils directly themselves.

To give unity and purpose to the efforts of the pupil helpers and sponsors and to insure that their activities are conducted in accordance with the policies of the administrative office for the week, the principal holds a meeting with the pupil helpers and sponsors each week. The head assistant and the teacher of physical education are seated with the helpers and the patrol groups, respectively, and the principal presides. The head assistant makes a brief report on *intermission order* during the week and offers suggestions for the improvement of the service. The captains of pupil assistant groups are invited to offer for administrative consideration suggestions regarding such matters as basement order, yard activity, or safety precautions. After matters pertaining to the past week have received atten-

tion, the principal explains any new policy or problem that will require attention of teachers and pupils participating in school control during the coming week. Before the close of the meeting, the principal introduces to the pupil helpers the teachers who will be on duty during the coming week. He asks for them full co-operation of pupil assistants and points out that the teachers will be in full charge. He asks that all discipline cases *arising be brought to these teachers for disposal.*

When an individual pupil is reported to a teacher, she may settle the case and dismiss the offender, or she may send the pupil to the office. The principal directs any teachers on duty to accept responsibility for the guidance of the pupil assistants in directing and supervising their fellows. They are to assist children to acquire the ways of social control. They are to remain in the building until all pupils have passed, and then dismiss the pupil assistants from duty.

SPECIAL INTEREST CLUBS

Children as well as adults possess special interests. Their individual interests are often revealed at an early age. They enjoy the cultivation of their interests, which are usually heightened through the sharing of experiences with other children. For example, children interested in the collection of stamps or coins may secure great satisfaction through associating with other children of similar interests. A club may be organized to facilitate the exchange of stamps or coins. Out of the club associations may develop exchanges of ideas with respect to the history of stamps or coins, methods of arranging collections, and the like. Irrespective of the value of the activity of stamp or coin collecting, pupils acquire social experiences through associating, co-operating, exchanging ideas, and sharing interests that are of educational significance.

Interests that may lead to the organization of clubs may develop out of subject-matter contacts or voluntary associations with other children. Some of the clubs found in elementary schools have grown up around interests in radio, science, birds,

wild flowers, books, travel, gardening, dramas, handicrafts, music, and aviation. Participation in activities involving special interests may result in the development of motives for study and the challenging of creative powers. It has been found that pupils whose work in school is unsatisfactory participate less in extra-class activities than pupils whose work is satisfactory. The suggestion is offered that greater participation in activities on the part of pupils whose work is poor might develop a greater feeling of responsibility and thereby increase interest in the work of the school.

A child who engages in an activity through an interest of his own and on his own initiative probably experiences feelings similar to the feelings experienced by an adult who develops a business of his own. At least, children develop keen interest in club activities and a strong feeling of proprietorship in their clubs.

In the organization of special interest clubs the principal should proceed slowly. He must be able to identify clearly the interests and to select sponsors capable of directing the development of the interests in the membership of the clubs. As far as possible, the clubs should serve both boys and girls, and provisions for club meetings should be flexible in order to allow the widest freedom to pupils for selecting clubs that appeal to their special interests.

RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES

Under recreational activities may be grouped such organizations as teams for games, clubs for individual and seasonable sports, vocational activities, interroom contests, and such purely social activities as room parties and class entertainments. These activities are media through which social behavior as well as physical well-being is encouraged.

Intergroup contests within the school. Many methods of utilizing contests for the recreational and social training of pupils are available to the principal with initiative. Interroom contests may be organized to promote punctuality, good order,

placed on their activities in this respect. The first step, perhaps, should be a statement of the time at which parties may be held. If the day preceding a holiday is permitted, the final period of the afternoon may be designated. The principal should make assignments of days for parties and picnics with the outstanding religious, nationalistic, and social characteristics of the community well in mind, in order that the school maintain its unbiased attitude toward all elements of the population.

Relating classwork and social-recreational activities. In order to assist pupils to participate enjoyably in school and home social affairs, the school should undertake systematically to assist pupils to acquire essential social practice and poise. This should be done through classroom instruction and guidance. *Inasmuch as ability to do social dancing is an asset in children's and youth's social affairs*, classwork in physical education should be organized to provide instruction in basic dancing steps. Likewise, because ability to converse informally and pleasantly is a foundational aspect of social affairs, classes in English should provide instruction in polite forms and social amenities and, to put theory into practice, conduct model social parties each semester or year. In similar manner, classes in art, music, and home economics can assist pupils to develop ways of enjoying social intercourse, both organized and independent, for childhood, youth, and adulthood.

Enlisting parent interest in social affairs. As in other aspects of the school program, the co-operative assistance of the parents should be enlisted to insure effective guidance of pupils' social activities. It is helpful, for example, to have pupils occasionally invite parents to homeroom, grade, or school parties. Special occasions, such as graduation with its attendant receptions and programs, provide a fitting opportunity for pupils to introduce their parents and win their interest in affairs of the school world. It is no less important for the school to interest parents in the guidance of pupil parties and other recreational activities of a social nature in the home. Teachers, pupils, and parents may co-operatively develop standards and

safeguards for holding social affairs both in school and in the homes.

Problems in tendering of gifts. The social and financial status of the community may be a factor in creating a problem concerning the tendering of gifts. In wealthy communities, the pupils often vie with one another in giving presents to teachers, sometimes causing dissension in homes as well as at school. On the other hand, teachers in poor communities often spend considerable amounts on the pupils of their rooms in attempting to brighten the drab lives of their pupils through parties and gifts. Some school boards relieve the principal of the solution of this problem by adopting regulations forbidding the interchange of gifts between pupils and teachers. However, if proper foresight is employed, parties may be held from time to time with considerable training in courtesy and thoughtfulness as well as enjoyment for the pupils without incurring the objections mentioned.

SCHOOL-INTEGRATING ACTIVITIES

Certain activities of the school may be utilized to good advantage by the faculty in providing integrating experiences for the pupils, such as those centering about the homeroom, assemblies, community fetes and pageants, the school library, the school savings bank, and the school paper.

The homeroom. The homeroom provides the key to many kinds of group organizations. Under the single-room, self-contained classroom plan of organization, social activities must be organized with the pupils of a given room as a group, or with the pupils and teachers of two rooms working together. A period is often set aside each week for special interests or special activities in the homeroom. Likewise, in the homeroom, recreational groups or room teams, as well as civic clubs, may be developed. Under the departmental plan of organization, a group of rooms may work together to make possible a larger variety of activities, such as major and minor leagues for sports or special-interest clubs. Under the platoon plan of organiza-

tion, two types of activities—recreational and special-interest—are provided in the special rooms. In this case, the third type of activity—civic—can be organized on a large-group basis for the entire school with the homerooms constituting the individual units.

The school assembly. The school assembly, properly utilized, becomes a force in promoting school solidarity and in developing school opinion. The principal who desires to organize an effective program of socialization through extra-class activities must realize fully the possibilities of his assembly facilities.

Two factors that will determine the part the assembly will have in the extra-class program are (1) the form of organization of the school, and (2) the assembly-hall accommodations. In the departmental or regular scheme of organization, the assembly hall is not used regularly; hence a schedule for its use must be prepared. The extra-class activities furnish the most profitable source of activities for assembly programs.

The importance of the second factor—the extent of the assembly hall accommodations and facilities—is frequently overemphasized, especially if the facilities are limited. The resourceful principal will discover means of holding assemblies in schools in which the assembly-hall facilities are deficient or even lacking altogether. For example, if the assembly hall is small, greater pupil participation may be secured in assembly exercises, because of the smaller number of pupils in attendance at the assembly period.

Some small school buildings of the older types have no assembly facilities whatever. In these circumstances very effective assemblies may be organized in the rooms by having two, three, or four room groups combine, the pupils in the room in which the assembly is held being responsible for the program. The girls may sit two in a seat, and the boys stand around the walls. These assemblies have an intimate and direct appeal that is often lacking in the large assembly. The programs should not be elaborate, and should provide, if possible, for participation by every pupil in the homeroom. By regularly

rotating the privilege of holding the assembly among the rooms of the group, each pupil will receive one or more times during the semester the training provided by active participation, as well as listening. These assemblies may be convened quickly and without confusion.

In buildings of the older types, the only room available for assemblies is the gymnasium. When an assembly is held, the apparatus is placed aside and the floor space filled with chairs. This arrangement has three distinct drawbacks. The classes in gymnasium must usually be discontinued for a considerable period before and after the assembly because of the time needed in placing and removing the chairs; the chairs are broken through constant handling; and the seating arrangements are not conducive to good auditory and visual effects. The principal may substitute *standing assemblies* for the seated assembly, holding the latter only at stated intervals and then only for programs of a special nature. The standing assembly may be made effective, but the programs must be short—the maximum being fifteen minutes. This type of assembly fits in well with school civic movements for improved cleanliness, posture, and control. It can easily be correlated with the marching in fire drills and the formal aspects of physical education. It is also well adapted to control by the patrol or monitor staff under the direction of the pupil president of the student council. It has the further advantage of flexibility in being quickly convened.

The programs of the assemblies should be varied. The principal who has a wide range of extra-class activities in his school will find no difficulty in providing variation. Indeed, he will be rather pressed to provide all of the different types of programs that his *pupil organizations demand*.

The civic assembly is a type that merits the serious attention of the principal of the elementary school. It should emphasize dramatized numbers rather than spoken contributions, and its time should rarely be utilized by the principal for a civic lecture to the pupils. Civic projects that the principal may desire

to place before the pupils may often be more effectively handled by the civic-club officers. The program of the civic club should be based on a specific topic or objective, such as protection of property, safety, or the like. Where a civic schedule of monthly topics is used, the civic assemblies may be held monthly, the civic club or some room giving a dramatization at each assembly of a civic problem for the month. Thus the assembly may be made to stimulate, advertise, and support the work of the civic clubs.

The special-interest clubs may give variety to assembly programs by furnishing numbers from time to time or, in certain instances, complete programs. If equipment is available, motion picture programs may be utilized for recreational and educational values. Special days, such as Washington's Birthday and Memorial Day, usually call for commemoration programs in the assembly.

The method of conducting an elementary school assembly, whatever the type, presents an important problem for the principal. The principal and teachers as a rule should keep themselves as much in the background as is consistent with the effective management of the assembly period. Pupil officers, such as the president of the patrol, may well be utilized in the control of the assemblies to provide training in assuming leadership and responsibility and in augmenting the standing of pupil officers in the eyes of their fellows. In civic assemblies, the president of the student council should preside and the secretary of the council should take the minutes of the meeting.

The active direction of assemblies should always be delegated to a capable teacher possessing administrative ability and resourcefulness. The principal should always be present at assemblies and at times speak to the assembled pupils, but he should not devote his time to attending to the petty details of assembly management. The principal who is in the assembly hall before the first pupils enter and who devotes his time and efforts to directing the seating of the groups, giving instructions to ushers and pupil officers, acting as announcer of each num-

ber, and leading the flag salute, not only usurps an educational opportunity of the children, but loses dignity and prestige with the pupils as well. His part in assemblies will be more dignified and effective if he enters when the program is about to start and awaits the invitation of the sponsor or pupil chairman to participate. The principal who thus delegates details and remains somewhat removed will save time, effort, and dignity, and have a better vantage point from which to evaluate the educational outcomes of his program of assemblies.

The school library. The school library may be utilized by the principal for vitalizing extra-class activities and serving as the medium through which civic, special, and recreational interests are adjusted to classrooms and community activities. A pupil, for example, becomes a member of the home garden club. In the library, he finds books on plant growing, and immediately sees new significance in elementary science in the classroom and also the activities of gardening in the community. The school library may be a center for the fruitful pursuit of extra-class interests through stimulating recreational reading.

The school savings bank. Although the principal of the elementary school may be inclined to view the school savings bank merely as a project for inculcating thrift, it may, nevertheless, be made an important influence in socializing the pupils. In the first place, it must be made clear to the pupils that saving for its own sake is not a desirable purpose. There should be a worthy purpose that prompts the saving. Saving for future education or civic, special, and recreational ends should be emphasized, and the habit of thrift may thereby be formed in connection with profitable social training. When pupils save their pennies to buy books, musical instruments, the school paper, or to pay their club dues, instead of spending the money unwisely at satellite stores, the social functions of the school savings bank are realized.

The administration of the school savings bank involves considerable attention to the factors of time and effort required by teachers and should, therefore, be made the subject of very

careful planning. It is perhaps advisable for the principal who lacks experience in this project first to form a room savings bank and study methods of operation and control until a policy that will meet the needs of the school may be formulated. Stamps and tokens are often found helpful in the administration of funds. Any suggestions of propaganda from outside sources must be scrupulously avoided.

The school newspaper. The school paper is an extra-class activity that, if effectively employed, may exert a great influence on the functioning of other extra-class activities and school opinion. It may also be made a unifying influence in the life of the school.

It is gratifying to note the tendency of the schools to make the papers real news organs presenting a variety of materials concerning civic development, wholesome recreation, and matters of special social interest to pupils, parents, and teachers. That the elementary school paper may be made an important agency of desirable school publicity is shown by the investigation of Farley¹ who found that a sample group of 5,067 school patrons distributed throughout the United States preferred school topics in newspapers, such as pupil progress and achievement, methods of instruction, health of pupils, and courses of study, to other types of local news. Special themes that the superintendent may desire to have brought to the attention of the people of the community may well be featured from time to time in the papers. Excellent literary productions, short stories, and articles on the club activities; features of the school which render special service to the community, such as the penny lunch, special classrooms, and the like; and editorials on timely topics constitute desirable material for the school newspaper.

The administration of the elementary school paper involves thoughtful consideration by the principal. Some elementary school papers fail because of the lack of sound financing policy.

¹ Belmont M. Farley, *What to Tell the People About the Public Schools*. "Teachers College Contribution to Education," (New York: Columbia University, 1929), p. 16.

The mimeographed paper and the paper issued by the parent-teacher association involve little, if any, expense for the school. The former is limited in scope, and the latter is not so available for purely school news as might be desired. The principal can easily solve the problem of financing by making the paper the voice of the extra-class activities of his school and including the subscription cost in the membership fee of the activities. If he has an activity in which all pupils have memberships, he may arrange to have the club dues cover the full expense of issuing the paper. The civic club of the school may serve this purpose. The civic news and news of the allied activities may thus be emphasized for the purpose of furnishing strong incentives for reading the paper. A period may be set aside at the time each issue of the paper appears when the teachers and pupils in the homeroom may read and discuss the articles of school and community interest. If the paper is well organized and well edited, the pupils will develop standards for the evaluation of newspapers. Each pupil should be urged to take his paper home in order that the parents may be kept in touch with important events at the school.

SUMMARY

The education of an elementary school pupil is constantly going on. Whether an individual is in the classroom, on the school ground, en route to school, or at the dinner table at home, his education is constantly taking place. New experiences are being acquired, habits are being initiated or allowed to lapse, knowledge is being extended, and attitudes and ideals are being formed.

The education experienced by a pupil is of two kinds—formal and informal. The school provides both types of education and so does the home. Other institutions may likewise contribute both types. *The major concern of the elementary school is not solely for one or the other of these types of education, but for the proper relation and articulation of both types.* The school is charged with the responsibility of training young

people for worthy citizenship. This means that *the school must undertake to direct and, as far as possible, control the informal as well as the formal training of its pupils.* If through formal training the school undertakes to supply its pupils with a fruitful knowledge of society, but neglects to direct or to regulate the practices of its young people as functioning members of the social order, education comes to an impasse.

The modern elementary school has broadened its objectives in recent years to include the informal education of its pupils. *It seeks now to direct the formation of civic habits, attitudes, and ideals in its pupils and to establish worthy civic practices.* In the past, the elementary school has overemphasized the formal or intellectual aspects of citizenship almost to the exclusion of attitudes and practices. Attention must be given by the school to the development of wholesome civic attitudes, to the formation of worthy civic practices, and to relating properly the practices with the civic knowledge acquired in the formal work of the classroom.

The service needed by young people in elementary schools in their training for worthy membership in ordered society cannot be secured solely through classroom work. *The school must serve as a social laboratory in which the pupil is permitted to learn through doing and thereby to develop right and wholesome civic attitudes and ideals toward the social activities carried on in the laboratory.* Through participation in the social and civic life of the school the pupil develops the attitude of mind of a responsible school citizen. Civic initiative is challenged, and personal responsibility is experienced. *Under sponsorship and guidance the individual acquires experience as a functioning citizen in a school community and learns to adjust himself to the kind of social and civic controls that will be encountered in his adult life.*

Civic guidance on the part of the school should be extended into the community environment. *The pupil should be led to experience a sense of oneness with the community in which he lives and to feel the thrill of pride in the civic accomplishments*

of his community in which he has had a share and the humiliation of shame for civic derelictions of any kind. Civic attitudes of the type described do not necessarily result from the mere classroom intellectualization of civic matters. They are much more likely to result from actual participation in the affairs of school and community life, and the responsibility for providing the guidance required rests very largely with the school.

In urban communities especially, the elementary school must accept responsibility for helping pupils to find wholesome means of using leisure time. The challenges that both the school and the home make on leisure time are usually ineffective. Heavy assignments of home work by the school serve as feeble stimuli for leisure-time activities, and home responsibilities as a rule are too meager and artificial to occupy much of the child's time.

The school must attack the problem by making its plant the social center of community life for out-of-school as well as in-school hours. It must seek to provide and direct activities that will enlist the participation of its pupils during leisure as well as working hours.

The elementary school should not undertake to launch a program of extra-class activities of the sort discussed in this chapter without first fully acquainting the members of the teaching staff with the nature, purposes, and underlying principles of extra-class clubs and activities for elementary schools. To proceed otherwise would endanger the success of whatever program of activities is contemplated.

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The Elementary School in the Public School Structure

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AS THE BASIC UNIT of the American Public School System has undergone a long period of development. From earliest Colonial times it has been regarded as a common school; that is, a school open to anyone who desired admittance between six and twenty-one years of age. In the New England colonies it was a school that introduced the child to the rudiments of an education—reading, writing, and the number system, or the “so-called three R’s.” Not until many years after the Revolutionary War and the formation of the Federal Union of States did the elementary school really achieve a public status in all the states and become a definite segment of an “educational ladder.”

The structure of the elementary school has undergone change in relation to social and economic progress in the United States. In the New England colonies it was both a beginning and a finishing school for most of the children of the common man, just as it was in certain European States. In the states dominated by ideas of caste and by diversity of religious beliefs, the common school did not acquire a very definite status until well after the Civil War. The definite establishment

of the common school in all the states has resulted from the wide acceptance of the idea that the perpetuation of a democratic social order necessitates the development of a common school system supported at public expense.

The common school in Colonial times had no institutional connection with the next higher unit, the Latin grammar school, which was established to prepare boys who desired to enter the services of church or state for admission to college. Each unit developed independently. Both were only semi-public in the beginning, in that support was provided from fees paid by parents.

From the time of the Revolution to about 1840, the terms "elementary school" and "ungraded district school" were synonymous. With the introduction of grading during the latter part of the first half of the nineteenth century, the period of elementary education became very generally fixed at eight years. Prior to the introduction of grading, the length of the elementary school was usually determined by circumstances, such as the ability of the teacher to offer instruction beyond the rudiments, the distance of the school from the homes of the pupils, and the economic status of the district. During the Colonial period the amount of free schooling received by an individual was usually very small. It is estimated that the aggregate days of schooling of American citizens was about 80 days in 1800, a little less than one semester of schooling today. By 1840, the average had risen to 208 days; and by 1870, the date that marks the general adoption of the graded system by practically all city school systems in the United States, the average had increased to 582 days. Today the average schooling of American citizens is estimated to be around 1700 days. Figure 5 shows the total average days of schooling received by each individual of our population by decades from 1840 to 1930, as calculated from data collected by the United States Office of Education.

CHANGES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The lengthening of the elementary school period brought about by the improvement of the economic conditions of the

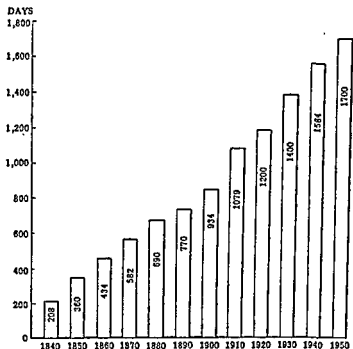


Fig. 5. Total Average Days of Schooling of Each Individual of our Population by Decades, 1840-1950 (1950 estimates).

people has called for a corresponding enrichment in instructional materials. From time to time the rudiments have been increased by the addition of new subjects, such as history, geography, civics, drawing, music, nature study, and the like.

Many communities between 1800 and 1850 established academies of a semipublic character that articulated to some extent with the elementary schools, thus making possible a type of general education not provided in the common or elementary schools. The public high school, which made its appearance in Boston in 1821, slowly established itself as a part of the American free school system and by 1880 became articulated more or less closely on the one hand with the elementary school and on the other with the college. A continuous though not closely

related education was thus made possible for the ambitious youth who desired to carry on his training at more than one institutional level.

By 1890 educators began to take stock of the character of the instruction provided at the elementary and secondary school levels. Far-seeing schoolmen began to question the length of the educational ladder that extended through eight years of elementary schooling, four years of high school, four years of college, and three years of professional training. The individual who began to climb the ladder at six or seven years of age was usually twenty-five or twenty-six on finishing the journey. This seemed too long a time to spend in continuous preparation for those who desired to enter professional life, especially in a new country such as ours. The questions were raised, "Is reorganization possible?" "Is not more time demanded for general and preprofessional education than is actually necessary?"

President Charles W. Eliot, Harvard University, made an effective presentation of the issue in an address before the National Education Association in 1888 on the topic, "Can School Programs Be Shortened and Enriched?" He was appointed chairman of a committee of ten persons to study our public school organization and its educational offerings. This committee made a notable report¹ in 1893 in which reorganization at the elementary and secondary levels was recommended to make possible the completion of elementary school training in less than eight years. The report pointed out that the elementary school program was loaded with review materials, especially in the seventh and eighth grades, and that secondary education should be extended downward into these grades for enrichment purposes. The report further implied that a reorganization of the elementary and secondary grades much like the present six-six plan prevalent in many of the smaller urban communities should be developed.

Some school systems had already reorganized their elemen-

¹ *Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary-School Studies* (New York: American Book Co., 1894), p. 249.

tary schools as seven-year institutions, thereby saving one year of time. The products of these eleven-year school systems apparently had fared as well in college as those coming from twelve-year and thirteen-year systems. Was it possible that in developing the eight-year elementary school more time than was actually necessary had been set aside for elementary training? Was reorganization of the elementary school needed, and was economy in time possible? These questions occupied the forum of educational discussion for the ensuing decade (1900-1910).

Changing definitions of elementary education. Attempts have been made to redefine elementary and secondary education. The definitions previously given in terms of number of grades were inadequate. Broader conceptions of elementary and secondary education were imperative. The conceptions of "time spent" and "ground covered" overlooked the educational problems implied in the organization of the different units of a continuous or articulated system of schools. The elementary school was defined by Butler³ in 1898 as the unit of the school system responsible for the general training in the elements of knowledge suitable for a pupil from the age of six or seven to the period of adolescence. This conception no doubt influenced those interested in educational reorganization to study the child and his development as the true basis of organization. Although immediate results were not witnessed in programs of reorganization, the idea was influential in bringing about the adoption of reorganization plans by many school systems embodying the six-, seven-, eight-, and nine-year elementary school in the decades following 1910.

Status of elementary school in 1910. Data published by the Bureau of Education in 1911 for 669 cities in the United States of 8,000 population or over with respect to types of educational organization revealed the plans of organization given in Table II. Obviously, the large majority of the elementary schools in

³ N. B. Butler, "The Scope and Function of Secondary Education," *Educational Review*, XVI (June, 1898), 17.

city systems had become schools with eight grades although there were still a number of departures from this pattern of organization. A departure even more pronounced in practice than the shortening of the elementary school period was the lengthening of the period to nine years. This development was found in school systems in which the program was controlled by advocates of thoroughness, who thought that an extra year was required to master the fundamentals of elementary educa-

TABLE II
PATTERNS OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION IN USE IN 669 CITIES
OF 8,000 POPULATION OR MORE IN 1910 *

NUMBER OF CITIES	PLAN OF ORGANIZATION	
	Years in Elementary School	Years in Secondary School
489	8	4
86	9	4
48	7	4
7	8	3
4	8	5
3	7	5

* Thirty-two cities were reported as making significant departures in school organization.

tion. President Eliot charged that these programs were not educationally respectable, that the textbooks in use were laden with repetitious material, and that the methods used to secure mastery of the "so-called" essentials were in the main deadening in their effect on the minds of the pupils.

Reorganization programs. Since 1910, many school systems have undergone educational reorganization. At least half of the states have enacted legislation making possible a reorganization of the upper elementary and lower high school grades. A study of the organizational pattern in 1948 (see Table III) shows the nature of the changes that have taken place between 1910 and 1948. Here it is seen that the six grade elementary school is

found in approximately 68 per cent of the cities, whereas in 1910 practically no cities had this type of elementary school.

Comparison of data presented in Tables II and III indicates not only a great shift in the number of grades in elementary schools but also in the public secondary school. Reorganization

TABLE III

PATTERNS OF ORGANIZATION IN USE IN 1732 CITIES OF
2,500 POPULATION OR MORE IN 1948 *

Number of Cities	Years in Elementary School	Years in Secondary School			
		Junior	Regular	Senior	Junior College
321	8	—	4	—	—
478	6	3	—	3	—
54	6	3	—	3	2
215	6	—	6	—	—
168	6	2	4	—	—
13	6	2	4	—	2
25	5	3	4	—	—
42	7	—	5	—	—
14	7	2	—	3	—
42	other patterns				

* Adapted from *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXVII, No. 1 (Feb. 1949), p. 10, National Education Association.

has been facilitated in many communities by the rapid increase in population and by civic improvements, such as hard roads and improved methods of transportation, which have made school consolidation possible. Since reorganization was launched as an educational problem, there has been a rapid shifting of population in many of the states from rural to urban centers. *The change has frequently been so rapid as to create an impasse in the administration of educational affairs.* Many cities have been confronted with the problem of providing for greater numbers of pupils than their physical facilities would accommodate. Usually, reorganization of some kind has been resorted to as a means of solving the problem. The reorganization plans have invariably resulted in some changes or modifications in the elementary schools.

The graded elementary school in urban communities. Prior to the introduction of grading, the traditional or regular organization of the elementary school in urban communities consisted of neighborhood or district schools in which a single teacher accepted responsibility for the complete education of the group of pupils assigned to the school. As the population of the cities increased, the enrollment in the district schools likewise increased, causing excessive overcrowding and creating serious problems of housing and management or discipline.

By 1870 the graded system had come into use in most of the larger cities. The one-room neighborhood or district school had been very largely supplanted by buildings with several classrooms and the pupils graded according to chronological ages or amount of time previously spent in school. The materials of instruction were also graded or adapted to the needs of the pupils assigned to the classes. For example, the texts in reading were published in series and were designated first reader, second reader, third reader, through the eighth. The other texts were not graded to this extent, although the lesson material was presented in the order of progression from that for beginners at the first of the text to that for the eighth or highest grade at the close of the book.

The classification of pupils into groups or grades and the adaptation of lesson materials to the abilities of the pupils assigned to the respective grades brought about great improvements in both instruction and management. Corporal punishments, which were usually reported periodically to the central school office, decreased greatly; and the learning of the pupils was reported to have improved decidedly. Even so the evils of mass instruction still prevailed because classes were large and teachers had little time for individualization. Failure of a pupil to pass a subject in a grade usually meant that the pupil had to repeat the work of the grade. Nonpromotions were numerous and the percentage of retardation was high.

Changes in the curriculum of the elementary school took place more rapidly than the preparation of teachers to provide

instruction in the offerings added to the curriculum. Many teachers were unable to teach new subjects, such as music, art, physical education, nature study, and the like. To meet this need special teachers were often added to the staff to give instruction in the newer subjects. These teachers went from grade to grade and school building to school building within the system. They taught the special subjects for the regular teachers as often as the schedule would permit.

The regular teachers were expected gradually to develop the ability to teach the newer subjects. After a time these special teachers gave place to special supervisors who assumed responsibility for co-ordinating and developing the work in the special subjects and for the in-service improvement of the regular teachers.

Departmental organization. Departmentalization of the upper grades³ was tried in the early eighties but apparently with only partial success. New York City introduced departmental teaching about 1900, and by 1912 had departmentalized the upper grades of three fifths of its grammar schools. The advantages claimed for the departmental organization were better teaching, better equipment, enriched curriculum, promotion by subject, improved physical conditions for pupils, interest and stimulus by several teachers instead of only one, college graduates as teachers in grammar grade positions, and transition to high school attitude and methods. The arguments used against the plan were that it tended to make teachers narrow, to overburden the pupils, to impair discipline, to overemphasize the function of knowledge in education, and to destroy the unity of school life for the pupil.⁴

An inquiry⁵ made by the Commissioner of Education regarding the status of departmental organization in 813 cities of 5,000 population and over, in 1912, disclosed the information given in Table IV. Slightly more than half of the cities (51.2

³ U. S. Department of Interior, *Report of the Commissioner of Education*, June 30, 1912, I, 141.

⁴ *Ibid.*, June 30, 1914, I, 45.

⁵ *Ibid.*, June 30, 1913, I, 139-41.

per cent) that replied to the inquiry had adopted the organization. The large majority of the schools that answered the specific questions considered that departmentalization was the means of reducing failure, of holding a larger number of pupils for high school, and of enabling the pupils to carry their work better in the high school. An overwhelming majority of the pupils who were polled in New York City regarding their reactions to the departmentalization of the upper grades declared themselves strongly in favor of the plan.

TABLE IV

STATUS OF DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION IN 813 CITIES OF
5,000 POPULATION AND OVER IN 1912

Question	Yes	No	Not Answered
Do you have the departmental organization?	416	352	0
Does it result in a reduction of failure?	240	78	148
Does it result in a larger number of pupils entering high school?	250	81	150
Are the pupils better able to carry high school work?	302	34	125

Following the inquiry made in 1912, many more cities adopted the departmental plan. Some organized the middle grades as well as the upper grades into departmental units. A few carried the practice into the lower grades. In cities adopting the six-three-three or the six-six plan, departmental work was gradually eliminated in the elementary school. It was believed that the specialization of instruction under several teachers was detrimental to the best progress of elementary school pupils. Accordingly, departmental teaching has been gradually discontinued in elementary schools in favor of the self-contained classroom organization below the seventh grade. Even in Grades 7, 8, and 9, complete departmental organization is giving ground at present to limited departmentalization in which the core subjects of the curriculum are taught by a single teacher.

In elementary schools that are organized according to the eight-four plan, instruction in the upper grades is given by a single teacher or on a limited departmental basis. If a school has only two, four, or six sections of seventh and eighth grade pupils, these sections are frequently organized under home-room teachers who have charge of a single class or section but who also offer instruction to the other sections in some special subject or area.

The platoon organization. The platoon type of school received its impetus at Gary, Indiana, under the creative administration of William A. Wirt, who became the superintendent of the Gary public schools in 1908. The plan incorporated partial departmentalization with a broader and richer program of elementary education that called for a carefully considered balance between the regular school subjects and special subjects and activities. The grades were separated longitudinally into two divisions, each having an equal number of classes. The classes were alternated so that one half of the day was spent by each division or platoon of pupils in the classrooms on regular academic work taught by regular teachers, and the other half of the day was divided into special activities centering around the auditorium, playground or gymnasium, shops, laboratories, library, music room, and drawing room. The plan made possible a greater utilization of building space and an enriched program of education with a lengthened school day.

The platoon school as a type of organization reached its peak around 1930. It has rapidly declined in recent years as the basic ideas of the plan have been generally incorporated into the elementary school programs in urban school systems. The reason for the decline of the platoon type of organization is the strong objection to departmentalization in the primary and middle grades.

Functional conception of the elementary school. In recent years the different units of the public school system have been considered in a functional way by some thinkers rather than as divisions made up of so many grades or years. The elementary

school unit is looked upon as a period in the process of formal education during which certain fundamental abilities, attitudes, and skills are acquired. The clear line of cleavage between the elementary and secondary schools is placed, according to Morrison, "at the point at which the young child has acquired the primary learnings of civilization that enable him to learn from books and from assigned school exercises in the place of complete dependence on the teacher. As intellectual products, these primary learnings are reading, writing, and the number system. With them, the pupil can begin to learn by study; without them, he must learn from parent or teacher or his contemporaries or not at all." *

When a child has acquired the primary learnings indicated, he enters a new period of development irrespective of the grade in which he is placed. He is then capable of carrying on his own education under guidance. Education is therefore regarded as a process of intellectual maturing and not mere preparation for promotion from one grade to another or from one unit of the school system to another.

Many years will no doubt be required before the functional conception of the elementary school will be incorporated generally into administrative organization. However, the idea is fundamental to sound organization; and administrative officers in elementary schools will find that functional organization is not only possible, but that it provides a flexibility not attainable under other forms of organization. School organizations based on the lock-step movement of pupils through a series of grades must give way to systems that provide for the administration of individuals in accordance with their capacities to progress.

In some schools the term "grade" has been discontinued in the primary unit. Children are grouped in class sections according to their needs for instruction. Individuals are shifted from one section to another when their needs can be best served by the change. Although instruction is provided for pupils in

* H. C. Morrison, "The Secondary Period and the University," *School Review*, XXXVII (January, 1929), 22.

groups, the needs of an individual pupil that are not served through the instruction and activities of his group are met through individual attention given either by the teacher of the group or some other teacher who is especially prepared to render the service required.

The transfer of pupils to the next unit of the school system is made when the best interest of each pupil warrants change. Although transfer from one section to another is usually made at the end of each school year, promotion for individuals is made at any time their progress warrants transfer to another section or group.

Size and character of community as a factor in elementary school organization. Innumerable variations of a minor character in elementary school organization and administration must always be expected because of variations in the character and composition of the personnel of supporting communities. The size of the community likewise determines in no small way the character of the school buildings, the plan of organization, and the quality of administration possible to secure. In communities with population under 5,000, the median size of elementary schools is around 425 pupils; but, in communities between 30,000 and 65,000 population, the median size of elementary schools is approximately 600 pupils. In cities of 100,000 population and over, the median enrolment in elementary schools rises to about 700. Enrolment not only influences the building conditions but also the plan of organization and the character of the educational leadership. Auditoriums, gymnasiums, libraries, and other special rooms are usually prohibitive educational luxuries in small schools, yet they make possible great transformations in the work and atmosphere of a school. Size of school makes possible better classification of pupils, better qualified teachers because of better salary schedules and facilities for training in service in larger communities, and better administration attributable to larger professional opportunities in the larger schools. All small schools cannot be classified as poor schools; nor can all large schools be rated as good schools.

However, size is an important factor in the development of good schools.

In many rural communities the single-room school has been superseded by the consolidated school, where improved roads permit the rapid transportation of pupils. The abandonment of the one-room schools in favor of the larger centralized school has been justified very largely on the ground of the superior educational opportunities provided by the larger school. Standards of education are raised through the consolidation of district schools as a result of better organization, which in turn makes possible better learning and teaching and more efficient administration. The large consolidated rural school may approach the standards of excellence of the large city school of comparable size.

The shifting of population in urban centers from well-developed areas to new adjacent residential areas has led some school systems to introduce the idea of the neighborhood primary school in these new communities for the housing of pupils in the age groups five to eight or nine years of age. It has been found better to provide this type of school housing for the younger children than to transport or to have them travel a considerable distance to an established elementary school. The housing of the children of the primary period in the developing neighborhood has met with the enthusiastic approval of parents of younger children and has enabled boards of education to test the growth of new areas before erecting permanent elementary school buildings. If the new area does not develop into a substantial community after a few years, the board can dispose of the building and grounds usually to good advantage; if the area warrants the construction of a one-section or two-section elementary school, the primary school building is expanded as additions are required.

In some urban communities that have maintained elementary schools for many years, residential areas are gradually being encroached upon by business and industry until the community ceases to be residential. The school enrolment de-

creases and the capacity of the building exceeds the pupil load. These schools present serious plant problems for the school system. Pupils who require transportation can be hauled to such buildings although this generally is not a satisfactory solution of the problem. The situation presents a problem that calls for special study and consideration.

Decreasing enrolment, attended by closing of rooms, creates a problem in maintaining morale of pupils and teaching staff, as well as in organization to utilize the vacant space in the building. As the population of the district declines, groups with different cultural backgrounds often move in to take advantage of lower rent. Such groups usually have lower standards of living than the people whom they succeed. Their coming, too, is frequently resented by those of the declining group who still remain, especially if they are of different racial stock, and friction frequently results, creating problems for the school. The feeling is soon prevalent among the older residents and children that the district is running down. This atmosphere pervades the school as well as the community; and, as the pupil group deteriorates in quality, rooms are closed, and teachers are transferred to other schools, the principal is confronted with the twofold problem of maintaining the teacher-pupil quota for his school and at the same time bolstering the *esprit de corps* of his staff.

There are a number of ways in which the principal can utilize unoccupied rooms and at the same time enrich the program of his school. He can, for example, open a school library to stimulate recreational reading by his pupils or organize a room to provide visual aids for supplementing the regular work of the classrooms. The principal may set aside a room for children who bring lunch to school, or organize a social room where parents may meet without interfering with the regular program of the school. In these cases, the vacant rooms would be utilized for direct service to the community.

The principal who is alert and professional-minded may interest his superior line officers in utilizing the surplus space to

establish special divisions in the unoccupied rooms, such as classes for the hard of hearing, crippled children, subnormal divisions, sight-saving rooms, classes for speech defectives, or rooms for truant children. The peculiar advantage of this type of organization is that the special divisions not only have smaller memberships than regular rooms but draw pupils from outside the district as well. The principal may also secure the establishment of a medical and clinical center. Such centers are of inestimable value in meeting the needs of a district in which a school with decreasing membership is usually found.

If the principal knows his community thoroughly and intelligently presents its needs, he usually can rely on the support of his superior line officers in securing the authority to organize special rooms. The benefits to the community and the school are immediate. The community will receive special services for which it has particular need, while the school, instead of deteriorating through declining attendance and vacant rooms, will maintain its vigor, acquire an enriched program, and even extend its sphere of service, under the devoted work of a contented, united staff.

Among the less desirable, though frequently employed, methods of utilizing vacant rooms are the housing of special branches of crowded neighboring high schools, such as commercial, technical, or prevocational departments; depots for distribution of supplies from the central office, such as visual education or radio materials; or general storage rooms for general school equipment or supplies. The first of these methods—namely, the housing of a high school branch—has educational disadvantages, the most pronounced of which is the bringing of the high school pupils into contact with the children of the elementary school. This factor alone would create a host of problems for the principal to solve, not to mention other attendant difficulties such as sharing of executive responsibilities with another principal, possible conflicts in the use of playgrounds, gymnasium, and auditorium between two groups of pupils, and adjusting personnel matters involving two separate

teaching staffs. Use of the school as a supply depot would introduce a noneducational activity with added possibilities for confusion in the school, while storage of materials would neither eliminate the barren atmosphere that vacant rooms give to a school building nor in any way improve the morale of pupils or teachers.

Changing conceptions of the elementary school. In the late 1930's it was generally believed that the elementary school had either reached or was approaching the saturation point in enrolment. Except for a brief period following World War I, the American family pattern was on the decrease, and the ratio of adults to children was on the increase. This tendency with the better and wider enforcement of the compulsory attendance laws placed practically all of the children in the elementary school age group in school.

A slight increase in the birth rate appeared in 1940. This was believed by population experts to be only an insignificant fluctuation. Following the entrance of the United States into World War II, a marked increase in birth rate occurred. When the peak in birth rate was reached in 1947, many believed that it would be followed by a rapid decline such as had occurred after the close of World War I. Birth data for 1948, 1949, and 1950 showed the assumption to be erroneous. The increase in rate continued through these years at almost the figure reached in 1947. The assumption in 1952 is that a change in family pattern may have been established that will continue through the 1950's and into the 1960's. The increase in the child population to date will require a rapid expansion in building facilities for the accommodation of children of elementary school age.

A general change throughout the country has occurred, especially in urban school areas, of providing school services for children in the age group five to six. This has resulted in the popularization of the kindergarten and the enactment of legislation making the kindergarten an integral part of the elementary school. A study of the research division of the

National Education Association in 1948 shows that of 1518 cities reporting, 59 per cent were operating kindergartens for children five to six years of age and 2 per cent were operating prekindergartens as a part of their elementary school systems. The study revealed a net increase of 30 per cent in the number of school systems operating kindergartens in 1948 over 1938.

The tendency at present is to regard the kindergarten as a necessary part of primary education. Most students of education agree that kindergarten training reduces retardation in the primary grades. One investigator found in a study of retardation in Grades 1 to 5 only 35 per cent failures among pupils who had received kindergarten training in comparison with 60 per cent failures among nonkindergarten children. An investigation in the elementary schools of Michigan found that 69 per cent more pupils who had not received kindergarten training had to repeat work than those who had the advantages of kindergarten experience. In general, the findings of the studies of kindergarten and nonkindergarten pupils reveal that pupils with kindergarten experience make normal progress to a greater extent than those without such experiences.

Authorities in primary education now very generally believe that kindergartens contribute greatly to the development of happy, healthy, and well-integrated personalities of the children who receive such advantages. The evidence seems to show that kindergarten training influences favorably the later progress and achievement of children in school.

Inasmuch as there is no good reason for not having kindergartens as part of the elementary unit of a school system and there are many excellent reasons for having them, the real issue is whether or not the community can and is willing to meet the cost of providing for its five-year-old children the added advantages that kindergartens will give.

The evidence indicates that the elementary school is a dynamic institution and is sensitive to the changes that have taken place in the social and economic life of the American people. Several definite trends appear to be indicative of sub-

stantial progress. The first of these concerns the change in the ages of children allotted to the elementary school, the tendency being to make the elementary school more and more an institution for childhood education. The seventh and eighth grades are definitely being allotted to the field of secondary education in many school systems, with the result that the upper age limit of the elementary school is being terminated increasingly at about the time the child becomes twelve years of age. For some time, kindergartens have been organized as indicated above to care for children below the age of six, and more recently prekindergartens and nursery schools have also been added. Today these units, which were often organized and supported by outside agencies, are being integrated with the primary grades of the elementary school. The reorganization of the primary grades and their integration with the kindergarten offer definite evidence that the elementary school is being extended downward to include the preschool years of the child's life.

The change in the age group of the elementary school has been accompanied by changes in the character of the task of the school. No longer is the work of the elementary school conceived solely in terms of the three R's, important as these tools are to every child. The school must perform a socializing function that necessitates the establishment of habits, attitudes, and tastes, as well as the cultivation of intellectual processes. The pupil is regarded as an individual personality entitled to development. To cultivate personality the school must study the capacities possessed by the individual pupil and seek to provide activities and experiences through which the individual's potential abilities can be developed. The results desired cannot be achieved through inflexible organization. Hence, fixed grading and annual or semiannual promotions, which in the past have subordinated the interests of the individual to the group, have gradually yielded to the changing conception of education that the welfare of the group is best served when the school maintains a deferential regard for the individual.

It is doubtful if an individual can be socialized successfully in any other way.

The specific objectives of the elementary school. Irrespective of enrolment or form of organization, the elementary school has certain functions to perform that, from its inception, have given it a unique place among American institutions.

The first objective of the elementary school is the direction of the child in the acquisition of the fundamental abilities and skills basic to formal learning. For example, it should seek to direct the development of the ability to read so that the child can comprehend the thought of the printed page without having to decipher the mechanical elements of the word symbols; ability to use the common number concepts with facility; and ability to express ideas through the use of oral and written speech without dividing attention between the thought and the mechanical media of expression. The child does not emerge from the elementary period of learning until the powers described have been attained. If the elementary school sends its products into the secondary school without having developed the tools of learning, it has failed to discharge its major function.

A second objective of the elementary school is the socialization of the pupil; that is, changing the pupil from a mere individual into an intelligent citizen or member of society. Through teaching and the direction of the individual's associations with other pupils, the elementary school seeks to develop in a pupil social understandings and ideas, such as group responsibility, co-operation, self-control, consideration for others, and the like. These desirable citizenship values cannot be successfully realized for the individual in an atmosphere of repression and artificiality, nor can they be achieved in an environment characterized by unbridled freedom. The problem of the school, therefore, is to maintain a proper balance between individual freedom and collective well-being, both of which should be achieved by the pupil without the sacrifice of either.

The satisfactory realization of the socializing function is

scarcely possible unless the school undertakes to direct the extra-class as well as the classroom activities and experiences of the pupil. Through the cultivation of parent-teacher relations, the school may also influence the pupil's home and community life. If the elementary school can provide these co-operative, community experiences for its pupils while developing their individual capacities and satisfying their individual needs, it will have achieved its socializing function; namely, the development of a well-rounded personality properly adjusted to successful living and improved human relations in ordered society.

A third objective of the elementary school is that of acquainting the pupil with a well-selected body of conventional knowledge and developing a wholesome attitude toward learning. A fund of general knowledge may be easily acquired by a pupil in the elementary period that will provide a fruitful background for subsequent learning. The child in the elementary period is both curious and docile. Knowledge will appeal strongly to his interests. As a result, extensive reading may be utilized in greatly enriching the general knowledge of the pupil.

Fourth, the elementary school should train the pupil to make worthy use of his leisure time. Tastes should be developed for finer aspects of living, including the building of ethical character, cultivation of religious attitudes, and appreciation of the fine and industrial arts. Failure on the part of a pupil to acquire habits of using leisure time wisely during the elementary period may result in serious maladjustment in the secondary period and in later life.

A fifth objective of the elementary school with respect to its pupil personnel is that of developing an interest in physical development and a consciousness of proper bodily care. Unless the child is helped to understand and is taught to use his physical body intelligently, the whole process of education may come to naught. The environment of the school and the media of education are formulated and controlled largely in the in-

terest of the physical welfare of the child. Failure to develop in him a sense of responsibility for physical welfare and an intelligent understanding of his personal obligation for good health should be regarded as a serious matter by the school.

SUMMARY

The American elementary school has evolved to what it is today from an institution that sought to equip its pupils with the bare rudiments of an education; namely, the tools of literacy—reading, writing, and the elements of the number system. The content of instruction has varied from basic religious concepts to the foundation of a general education. This foundation is now considered to be the indispensable prerequisite to subsequent education and the minimum essential to intelligent participation in the pursuits of life in a democratic social order.

From an ungraded unit with virtually no institutional connections, serving children and youth from six to twenty-one years of age, the elementary school has become the first section of a graded educational ladder extending from the kindergarten to the end of professional education. The terminal point of the elementary school varies in different states and in different localities within states. *The prevailing tendency at present is to regard the elementary school as providing education for children from approximately five to twelve years of age, although it may retain children to the end of the eighth grade in many school systems, or to around age fifteen.*

The elementary school period, whether terminating with the sixth or eighth grade, is covered by compulsory attendance. In practically all states children and youth are required to remain in school until they attain age sixteen, unless legally excused. For the large majority of children, this requirement places them well into the second section of the educational ladder of the American secondary school.

Professional students of education no longer think of the elementary school solely in terms of its structure, which has passed through an extended evolution, but rather in terms of

its functions. Some regard it as the period in education during which fundamental abilities, attitudes, and skills are acquired. When these primary learnings are possessed, the child is ready to enter the field of secondary education in which he is capable of carrying on his own education under guidance. This conception supersedes the idea of grades completed and time spent. *It places the emphasis in elementary education on growth and development, thus eliminating the lock-step movement of pupils through a structural unit without regard to the abilities and needs of the individual.*

The modern elementary school is a dynamic institution, sensitive to the changes taking place in the social and economic life of the American people and responsive to the needs of the community it is expected to serve. Even though the tools of learning remain largely unchanged, both methods and materials of learning and teaching are constantly undergoing improvement and change. *Administrative organization likewise must be flexible, always subject to modification in light of what is best for the individual child.*

The child in the elementary school is best served when the major objectives of elementary education are being achieved. In terms of values, (1) a member of an elementary school group from approximately age five to twelve should be expected to acquire the ability to use effectively the fundamental abilities and skills—to read with understanding, to express ideas clearly through oral and written speech, and to perform the fundamental operations of arithmetic with facility and accuracy; (2) this member should reveal a satisfactory degree of socialization, indicating that he has become an intelligent citizen in home, classroom, school, and community units (evidences of this accomplishment should be exemplified in the assumption of group responsibility, self-control, co-operation, consideration for others, and in the expression of social understanding and ideas); (3) the member should have acquired possession and control of a well-selected body of fruitful knowledge, should have developed a wholesome attitude toward

learning, and should have formed habits of extensive reading as the means of enriching his general knowledge; (4) he should have established habits of making worthy use of leisure time, tastes for the finer aspects of living, wholesome attitudes toward religion, and appreciation for the fine and industrial arts as a result of the learning experiences provided during the elementary school period; and (5) he should have developed a keen interest in physical development and a consciousness of proper bodily care and good health during the years spent in the elementary school.

The realization of the major purposes of elementary education depends upon a clear conception of the role of the elementary school in the structure of public education. As the basic unit of an educational ladder imposed and controlled by the state, the elementary school is charged with the responsibility of laying the foundation of intelligent citizenship in a democratic social order. Its worth to the individual and to the state is indispensable both in the pursuits of life and in continued education.

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Organizing Personnel for Democratic Participation

THIS CHAPTER DEALS WITH THE PROBLEM of organizing the personnel of the elementary school so that the function presented in previous chapters can be achieved. The point of view presented here is a logical extension of the classroom team idea presented in Chapter 4. The concept that supports the entire chapter is that it is the business of organization to make it possible for people, ideas, and things to serve the educational needs of girls and boys.

THE PURPOSE AND PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

School organization serves the purpose of promoting the achievement of the goals that a school system strives to attain. An organization that promotes the achievement of valid goals of education in the elementary school is a good organization. An organization that fails to promote such goals or that interferes with their achievement is a poor organization. A plan of organization that promoted the goals of education at one time under a particular set of conditions may actually hinder the achievement of the same goals under another set of conditions.

Such is likely to be the case where those who developed a plan have passed it on to others who have not evaluated and adjusted the plan with care and vision.

Two school organization plans that appear to be about the same on paper may produce educational results that vary tremendously. In a search for ways of organizing that will produce effective education, the temptation of thinking that certain forms or mechanical schemes can provide a continuing answer to the problem of effective organization must be avoided. On the other hand, a good plan of organization is essential for the proper functioning of an elementary school system or individual school. In more specific terms, it is the purpose of school organization to reflect in action the function of the elementary school, an understanding of the nature and needs of children, an understanding of the nature and needs of society, the features of a desirable school curriculum, the elements of good practice in classroom and extra-class programs, and the application of sound principles of school organization.

Principles of organization are essential. Perhaps the one most reliable guide for a school system or individual school in the field of organization is a well-understood set of guiding principles that may be used in the consideration of problems of school organization as such problems arise in any elementary school situation. A school system or individual school that decides each issue, as it arises, on the basis of expediency rather than on the basis of guiding principles will lack a sense of direction and find some of its policies in conflict with others. The following are presented as illustrative guiding principles with the suggestion that each school system develop a set for use at the local level.

ILLUSTRATIVE PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

The elementary school is a social institution that functions through the proper relationship of people, ideas, and things. The form of organization that will bring about the relationship that provides for the many-sided development of girls and boys

is the goal. Any form of organization should be studied and constantly checked to see if it is in harmony with the goals of education in the elementary school.

The development of an original organization or the adjustment of an existing organization should be based upon facts that have been systematically gathered and analyzed. Personal opinions that are not based upon sound principles or reliable information are of little value in designing or adjusting a school plan of organization.

The school principal should function as an educational leader and the administrative head of the local school. All persons employed by the school or associated with it should recognize the principal as the professional leader of a school team. Those who give consulting services as members of the superintendent's staff should not have administrative authority or responsibility in a local school.

The school principal should work with people in a co-operative way. This does not alter the fact that he must bear the full responsibility for the proper functioning of the local school within the policies of the school system he serves. Such a leader shares the study, planning, and action phases of school operation with all of the school team of which he is the professional leader.

A school organization is best for girls and boys when it promotes all phases of child growth and development in a balanced manner. The organization should keep the number of teachers that a child contacts during his elementary school life at a minimum.

A school organization should give the individual elementary school a major role in curriculum development for the children it serves. It should provide for grouping girls and boys in harmony with the goals to be achieved.

ORGANIZING THE LOCAL SCHOOL TEAM FOR STUDY, PLANNING, AND ACTION

The basic members of the team. In line with the idea of the classroom team developed in Chapter 4, the children, the

faculty (including the principal as professional school leader), and the parents are the basic members of the local school team.

Other members. When the basic members have made plans to work together, then others who have special services to offer should be called in to join the team as they are needed. In organizing for the effective use of school services, all concerned should recognize the classroom teacher as the professional leader of the classroom team and the school principal as the professional leader of the local school team.

Clear and definite goals needed. The goal of a local school team may be clarified by putting it into a major question and then breaking that major question into several other questions. For the purpose of this discussion, the major question becomes "How can children, the faculty, the parents, and others be organized and work together to promote the achievement of the goals of education in the elementary school in our neighborhood?" A good answer to this question is of great importance to all concerned.

A local school team should begin its work by making plans to study, plan, and act together in solving some school problem. It is best for the professional leader to take the lead in developing the work of the group by suggesting that all members join in a program of getting better acquainted with the present school program and with each other as persons. It is ideal for the board of education and superintendent of schools to adopt policies that encourage the school principal to take the lead in operating the local school as a team. Other questions that are important elements in the major question already posed may be phrased as follows: (a) How can we organize ourselves to achieve a unified program of instruction, (b) to achieve a unified program of school services that supplement instruction, and (c) to achieve a unified program of school-home-neighborhood-community relations?

Most of the rest of this chapter will be devoted to the issue of how organization can help each of the members of a local school team in a co-operative effort to answer the questions in

the previous paragraph. Any problem that the local school team decides to try to solve will be likely to require study, planning, and co-ordinated action. For that reason it seems wise to take the question of organizing to achieve a unified program of instruction and outline the steps that could be taken in searching for the answer.

Beginning work on a problem. The technique of inventory making is widely practiced in American life and is readily understood by both professional and other members of a team. Hence an inventory of the present situation that exists with regard to a problem or question is a good starting point. The need to make an inventory raises the questions of who will do it, how it will be done, and when. The answer to these questions calls for the development of an organization plan for making school studies on various topics. Where the school team idea is practiced, any member or any combination of members may be invited to make the inventory study needed before planning and co-ordinated action can be achieved. The leader should take the lead in suggesting problems and in inviting other team members to participate in seeking solutions. As the team idea is practiced for a period of time, other members will become well enough acquainted with the school program and school problems to suggest questions or problems that should be considered.

Making the inventory of present organization. Inasmuch as a study plan is needed, the first step is to appraise the potential members of the local school team to see how they will fit into a study organization. In this inventory, such items as the following should be explored:

- I. Present faculty organization.
 - A. Existing study committees and their work.
 1. Central School System committees.
 2. Local faculty committees.
 3. Time when committee work is done.
 - B. Existing plan for faculty meetings.
 1. Central School System faculty meetings.

2. Local faculty meetings.
3. Time when faculty meetings are held.
- C. Current activity of local faculty members in college or university classes.
- D. Other aspects of present faculty organization.
- II. Present children's organization.
 - A. Is there a pupil council?
 1. What membership?
 2. When are the meetings?
 - B. What other children's organizations exist?
 - C. Other aspects of children's organization.
- III. Present parents' organization.
 - A. Is there a P.-T. A. or other similar association?
 1. What membership?
 2. When are the meetings?
 3. What committees or study groups?
 4. Is there a parent education program?
 - B. Is the local organization part of a district wide council?
 1. Membership plan.
 2. Active in what present committees or programs?
 - C. Other aspects of parents' organization.
- IV. Present list of others who might be invited to help the team.
 - A. School system service personnel.
 - B. Neighborhood leaders.
 - C. Community leaders.
 - D. County or state officers or leaders.

After the information sought is available, then a plan for study can be drafted and submitted to the appropriate individuals in each group.

Getting better acquainted with the program of instruction. It is assumed that a plan for study has been developed and that the topic chosen for study is the present program of instruction. The purpose is to give all members of the school team an opportunity to know more about the instructional program and to help them to become better acquainted with each

other. Such a study could be started in the faculty and extended to involve all of the other team members. It might be started by joint committees made up of faculty members and parents. It might start by the faculty making plans to present a description of the instructional program through the medium of a decentralized parent-teacher association program. In the parent-teacher program, parents gather in the classroom where their children are enrolled and the teacher presents the major features of the instructional program to the parents of her present class. In this way the entire faculty participates and all parents have an opportunity to start a study of the school program where they are most interested at the moment. It is not suggested that this kind of program replace the larger P.-T. A. meeting as both kinds of meetings may be scheduled from time to time.

Many questions usually grow out of such a beginning toward becoming better acquainted with the instructional program. Some of them are: (1) What is the plan for the whole instructional program? (2) How do you choose what is to be taught? (3) Why do you use the methods that are in use at present? (4) How are the teaching materials selected? (5) How are the various groups of children formed? (6) How long does a particular child stay with one teacher? (7) How do you tell whether or not a child or a class is learning at a satisfactory rate? (8) Are the children really learning the 3 R's as well as they should? (9) How much help should parents try to give their children with the instructional program through homework? (10) What teachers of special subjects, such as music, art, physical education, and science, should be available to assist the regular classroom teacher in order to accomplish the best results? (11) What other plans of school organization have been tried? (12) What other plans of school organization are now in use in other schools? (13) What is considered to be best practice today with regard to elementary school organization? (14) What modifications in our present plans might help us to achieve our goals more effectively? (15) What part can par-

ents, teachers, pupils, and others play in improving our present instructional program? (16) What planning and action do we need to undertake as a next step? All of these questions and many others lend themselves to valuable use in the inventory-making approach to the work of a local school team.

School principal as co-ordinator. One of the major responsibilities of the school principal in his role as educational leader is to serve as a co-ordinator who makes the work of all team members as easy, meaningful, and effective as possible. He must keep the major goal of the team in mind and bring it to the attention of all team members from time to time. This may be done by asking the following question about any program or project that is in operation or is being considered. The question is: "How will this program or project help the girls and boys in this neighborhood to obtain a better education?" If the answer is neutral or negative, the program or project should be appraised and redirected or replaced by a better one. If the answer is positive, then the program or project can be continued and supported by all team members.

Following up an inventory. After an inventory has been made that includes reliable information on the present program and situation, information on the practices of other schools, and a review of what informed persons believe to be good practice, the team is in a position to enter the planning part of its work.

The planning stage. Several important items need attention during the planning stage. Among them are: (1) the original statement of the problem may need to be revised or restated; (2) all team members, or representatives of all team members, need to become informed on what the problem is and upon the findings of the inventory; (3) some small planning group may need to give careful attention to several possible solutions and then recommend one or two for the larger team to consider. During the planning stage it may develop that a trial of a promising practice is desired. When such a trial of a practice is planned, all members of the team should be informed on the

purpose and general nature of the trial so that they will be prepared to give the results of the trial serious consideration at a later time.

Co-ordinated action. After the steps of study and planning have been taken; the next step is to take action to solve the problem under consideration. Co-ordinated action is made possible by placing the action in the hands of the professional leader of the school team or in the hands of someone whom he designates for the purpose. Democratic procedures are based upon the idea that many people take part in the formulation or appraisal of a policy, although the administrative head of an institution executes and administers the policy. One of the most important services that a principal can render as a co-ordinator is to keep all team members clear on the point that has been reached with reference to each problem receiving team consideration.

Appraising team programs. All programs need to be appraised from time to time to see if they are achieving the intended goal. The steps that were suggested for use in the study and planning stages of a program may be used with some modification in the appraisal step. Any appraisal must be based upon the analysis of reliable information with regard to the results of a program. Any member of the local school team may request an appraisal where the school team idea works properly. Such a request usually starts the study, planning, and action process and results in an improved educational program for children through the teamwork method.

Selecting team problems. It is suggested that the administrative heads of each team group meet from time to time to talk over problems which may need the attention of the local school team. In these discussions it will be possible to agree to have some problems handled by one of the groups previously mentioned. Such meetings should be helpful in timing study, planning, and action projects so that too many will not be undertaken at one time.

FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATION AS AN AID TO TEAM MEMBERS

An effective plan of organization helps children, faculty, parents, and others to play their proper role in co-operative education. Some of the ways in which functional organization can help each group in the team are the following.

Functional organization helps children. When the instructional program and the grouping of children are in harmony with the characteristics of a functional school organization, it is a real advantage to children. A school plan of organization that provides for the organization of the pupils into groups that can take part in many of the phases of school planning and school operation promotes the teaching and practice of democratic procedures. Chapter 6 considered organizations and activities in which pupils may be encouraged to participate as a part of the educational program, and many of those groups can help the local school team in its work. Of course, such a program must be adjusted to the maturity of the children who are to participate.

Functional organization helps the faculty. Any faculty should be able to do better work and with greater satisfaction when the organization of the school is designed and adjusted to promote teaching and learning. Such an organization should help the faculty by providing (1) a program of faculty study and planning; (2) definite school entrance policies; (3) effective policies and procedures for receiving and grouping children in a flexible way; (4) sound curriculum development policies; (5) successful methods of appraising the needs and growth of children; (6) efficient plans for reporting on the growth and progress of children; (7) clear policies with regard to classroom management and control; (8) reasonable teaching loads; (9) adequate instructional materials; (10) helpful supplementary services; and (11) many other advantages of a good organization plan. The proper operation of a functional plan requires the wholehearted co-operation of every member of a school faculty.

Functional organization helps parents. When the parents of

a school become participating members of a local school team, they will understand the importance of an effective organization. A good plan of school organization should promote a feeling of partnership between the home and the school, should help parents become better acquainted with the instructional program, and should encourage the development of a co-ordinated guidance program for children through a close working relationship between the parents and the school. A good school organization should also make it possible for parents to develop a program of parent education and social and recreational activities, and to assist in major improvements in the entire school program through studying, planning, and acting together.

Functional organization helps others in the neighborhood. A type of school organization that encourages the people of the neighborhood who do not have children in the school to use the school plant for meetings and for social and recreational or adult education purposes is of mutual advantage to all concerned. It gives the school a wider service role without interfering with the regular school program.

In the final analysis any organization that promotes the achievement of the goals of education in the elementary school is good. Every community or neighborhood throughout the nation has the priceless privilege of organizing its schools to be of greatest help to girls and boys. This is a feature of our state school systems that should be valued and retained.

DEVELOPING AND MAINTAINING A FUNCTIONAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LOCAL SCHOOL AND THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Although this chapter deals primarily with the organization of the individual elementary school, it is desirable also to consider the problem of co-ordinating the work of a school system in order to view the local school and its organization in proper perspective.

A challenge to educational leadership. One of the greatest challenges to educational leadership today is the problem of

developing and maintaining the most effective plan for co-ordinating the work of individual classrooms with the plans of the school system. Such co-ordination requires a set of working relationships that encourages the local school to do creative study, planning, and action in harmony with the general policies of the school system. A promising basis for such a set of relationships requires that the individual school be made the basic unit in school program development and operation with the assistance of a system-wide program of leadership services.

The rest of this chapter deals with the complex problem of designing and organizing functional co-ordinating machinery with some illustrations of promising practices. A wholesome set of working relationships between the local school and the central office of a school system is one of the most important elements in determining the quality of the educational program that is provided for the girls and boys in every American community. Principles of organization and functional relationship offer the best guide for the design of co-ordinating machinery.

Basic principles of individual school and school system relationships. As has already been emphasized in the first part of this chapter, the purpose of organization or of co-ordination machinery is to promote the achievement of the goals of education in the elementary school. The relationships which were sketched in the discussion of the classroom team apply also to the problem of school system co-ordination.

Administrative authority and responsibility must be clear. All members of classroom units and local schools within a school system must recognize that the board of education is the official policy-making agency for the system, that good practice provides for the board of education to select and appoint a superintendent of schools to serve as educational leader and administrative head of the school system, that the superintendent of schools delegates the authority and responsibility for the leadership and administrative direction of an individual school to a school principal, and that the members of the central consultation staff do not exercise administrative authority

or responsibility in local schools. Where the question of administrative authority and responsibility is not definitely defined, there is little opportunity to bring about an effective co-ordination of the total efforts of the school system.

Although the extent to which superintendents delegate authority and responsibility to local principals varies from community to community, best practice indicates that adequate co-ordination is most likely where the principal performs the three related roles of (1) administrator, (2) director of instruction, and (3) director of all personnel connected with the local building, including office and building service workers.

If some of the superintendent's central office staff are to have administrative authority, this fact should be made clear to all members of the school system.

A plan that fixes and clarifies the responsibility for policy formulation, policy interpretation and execution, and policy appraisal is essential if co-ordination is to be achieved. The personnel of the school system should understand that it is the responsibility of the superintendent and his administrative staff to interpret and to execute the policies of the board of education. In performing this function it is best if the superintendent establishes a relationship with the school principal where the principal is clothed with authority and responsibility for interpreting and executing policies with the superintendent and central office administrative staff on call to give advice and assistance if it is needed. For the purposes of policy formulation and appraisal, it is suggested that a participation system be designed to meet the needs of each school system. From the point of view of the individual school, policy formulation and policy appraisal are co-operative actions of the local school unit and the school system under the leadership of a central office staff.

The consultative function of the central office staff. The major part of the time of the consulting staff should go into helping classroom and individual school units. A minor fraction of the time of the consulting staff should go into adult educa-

tion for the faculty of the school system and adult leaders in the community, into the work of the leadership council of the school system, and into the necessary office and organizational duties of particular staff workers. All members of classroom units, individual schools, and of the school system should recognize the central office consultant as a person with a broad understanding of general education and special competencies in a particular area of education. All members of the central office consultation staff should understand that a school principal may accept or reject the advice a consultant offers on the ground that the principal is responsible for the total educational program of the local school.

Co-ordination requires carefully designed co-ordinating machinery. If a classroom unit, individual school, or school system is to function properly, the machinery used for co-ordination should be specially designed to harmonize with the nature and needs of the community and neighborhoods to be served. The basic machinery will be about the same in all communities regardless of size or situation. Of course, the details should vary in each local situation.

MACHINERY FOR CO-ORDINATING THE WORK OF LOCAL SCHOOL AND SCHOOL SYSTEM

Every school system needs (1) some organization design for professional study and planning, (2) some organizational plan for formulating and appraising school policies, and (3) some type of leadership council program. The following illustrative plan for faculty study and planning uses the idea that the individual school should be the basic unit in the school system combined with the idea that a faculty should experience participation procedures.

The local school representative plan. This plan assumes that it is sound to use the principle of representative democracy in the organization of a faculty study and planning system by having local school faculties elect the members of school system study and planning committees. It is also based upon the

idea that two-way communication between the local school, other local schools, and the central office is best achieved when the responsibility for communication is placed with some one contact person in each faculty group. The plan is easily adapted to small or large school systems and is in harmony with the function of education in the elementary school.

Major features of the local school representative plan. Inasmuch as the individual school is the basis of organization and operation, the individual school faculties should elect representatives to serve in study and planning groups. The representatives serve as two-way information links between the local school, the central office, other local schools, and the profession in general. Each school team helps to develop system-wide plans and policies and in turn applies such plans and policies in such a way as to meet the needs of children in the specific neighborhood that the local school serves. Leadership, time, and materials are provided for the study and planning program at both the individual school and school system levels. The representative groups should be in harmony with the plan of instructional organization and services used in the school system under a leadership council program illustrated and described later.

Illustration of local school representative plan. For illustrative purposes, the area served by a high school is chosen. The area includes ten elementary schools and three junior high schools. This area involves fourteen faculties that are associated for the purpose of achieving the goals of education beginning in the kindergarten and going through the high school. It is assumed that the school system uses the broad fields type of instructional organization in which the fields are (1) language arts, (2) social studies, (3) science and related studies, (4) the arts, and (5) mathematics. The service areas are (1) library service, (2) audiovisual aids service, (3) guidance and testing service, (4) health service, and (5) general policy planning, instruction, and administrative leadership services. Each school year one or more of these major study and plan-

ning areas receives the attention of the entire faculty in the fourteen schools. At the same time other areas receive the attention of the elected study and planning group charged with the continuous evaluation of the work in that area, and groups may be organized in any other area where there is a need. The following outline illustrates the steps of a group that is studying the language arts. The steps would be the same in any other area of study and planning.

STEPS IN GROUP STUDY WHEN FACULTY REPRESENTATIVE SYSTEM IS USED

- Step 1. Building an understanding of the function of a faculty representative by:
- (a) Discussing the two-way nature of communication.
 - (1) Getting information from the building faculty.
 - (2) Returning information to the building faculty.
 - (b) Discussing and practicing the techniques of communication by:
 - (1) Tapping faculty thinking, pupil thinking, and parent thinking through:
 - a. Formal methods.
 - b. Informal methods.
- Step 2. Setting goals in the central study group by:
- (a) Discussing responsibilities of the group.
 - (b) Discussing objectives of the school.
 - (c) Discussing objectives of the language arts.
 - (1) Child growth and development.
 - (2) Reasonable instructional sequence.
 - (d) Using a coded objectives work sheet to check present and proposed curriculum items.
- Step 3. Carrying on group study and planning by:
- (a) Sensitizing the faculty to the need for better language arts instruction through:

- (1) An inventory of present language arts situation.
 - a. Designing and administering instruments.
- (2) Tapping faculty thinking in the form of written suggestions for improvement.
- (3) Reporting the language-arts inventory:
 - a. To central study committee.
 - b. To entire faculty.
- (b) Refining faculty thinking through:
 - (1) Central group study and discussion of:
 - a. Inventory on master planning board.
 - b. Faculty suggestions for improvement.
 - c. Opinions of resource persons.
 - d. Promising practices in other schools.
 - e. Reviews of research and writing.
 - (2) Refining thinking in each building faculty by getting reactions to thinking of central group through formal and informal methods:
 - a. Review of tapping of thinking techniques.
 - b. Interpreting results.
 1. More than counting noses.
 2. Usual unreliability of first reactions.
- (c) Arriving at alternative solutions by:
 - (1) Formulating alternatives.
 - (2) Presenting alternatives to faculties.
 - (3) Further tapping of faculty thinking through securing a reaction to alternatives.
- (d) Making decisions by:
 - (1) Reviewing present language-arts situation.
 - (2) Reviewing faculty suggestions.
 - (3) Reviewing research, recent writing, and the suggestions of resource persons.
 - (4) Reviewing present situation and objectives in terms of alternatives proposed.
 - (5) Arriving at best solution for the school system at this time, recognizing that continuous replanning will be necessary.

- (6) Considering the effect of proposed solutions on other curriculum areas, on children, on parents.
- (e) Recommending action by:
 - (1) Formulating recommended actions in clear and usable form.
 - (2) Recognizing the contributions of all in recommending an action.
 - (3) Stating alternatives if a decision cannot be reached.
- (f) Following up action through the representative system by:
 - (1) Gathering reactions from pupils, faculty, parents, and public.
 - (2) Interpreting reactions sanely.
- (g) Searching for new and related problems that grow out of a recommended action and call for additional study and planning.

The most important techniques in the group procedure that has been outlined above are those used in the tapping and refining of thinking. Members of the central study and planning group need to learn to use both formal and informal methods. It is believed that the use of such a study and planning system will make it possible for the fourteen faculties to co-ordinate their efforts in giving a better and better educational service to girls and boys.

Organizing a leadership council program. Along with the operation of a faculty study and planning program through some type of representative system, a leadership council should be established. The council membership should include all school principals, members of the superintendent's administrative and consultation staff, and the superintendent. It is recommended that the council concern itself with major educational problems, issues, and promising practices and that the routines of school administration be allotted a minor fraction of the time of the council.

The program of a leadership council should be made a coordinated part of the faculty study and planning program of the school system through the leadership of the superintendent of schools. Such a council should function as a study, planning, and action group that considers problems, policies, issues, and promising practices that are of mutual concern to all school principals, the members of the central office staff, and the superintendent. It is suggested that the personnel already named be regular members of the council and that other faculty members or community leaders be invited to attend when an item of business with which they are concerned is before the council. The machinery of the leadership council and the program will vary with the size of the school system and with the basic philosophy of the function of school administration.

It is considered good practice to divide the council into at least two functional sections for some of its work. A council section for school principals can give attention to the problems that are of particular interest to principals, while a section of staff officers can give attention to problems that are of particular interest to the central office staff. A council will refer many problems to sections and committees for study and recommendation. One of the major functions of such a council is to make possible the systematic sharing of thinking and experience among the leaders of local schools and the leaders of the school system. A leadership council also provides the machinery for considering and approving the trial of promising educational practices by local school teams. When a local school team has studied a problem and arrived at a proposed practice, the school principal presents the proposal to the leadership council for appraisal. The council checks the proposed practice to see if it is in harmony with the present policies of the school system. If the proposal is approved, the council informs all schools that the trial of a promising practice is under way and provides a channel for reporting on the results of the trial. The same plan for proposing promising practices is also available to any department of the school system through the head of the de-

partment who is a member of the leadership council. Another important function of a leadership council is clarification, interpretation, and execution of school system policies. In this phase of a council's work, many situations will arise that suggest the wisdom of reviewing an existing policy in order to improve the educational program. A leadership council is in a good position to suggest the group or groups in the school system that should apply the study and planning process to the policy under consideration.

A leadership council meeting plan. Because the purpose of organization is to bring people, ideas, and things into an effective working relationship, it is necessary to set aside sufficient time for the leadership council to function effectively. In school systems that have from 25 to 30 local school units, it is suggested that one over-all leadership council receive approximately one half day per week in the time schedule. In larger school systems the schools can be organized into functional groups according to geographical areas. All of the local schools that send children and youth to a particular secondary school in a large city system seem to offer a good basis for a functional group of school units and for a leadership council as a part of a larger school system.

If approximately one half day per week is set aside for the work of the leadership council, the time may be used according to the following illustrative schedule.

ILLUSTRATIVE LEADERSHIP COUNCIL SCHEDULE

First Monday—Meeting of Principals' Section with the Superintendent, 2 to 4:30 P. M.

Second Monday—Council members work in schools or department on leadership problems.

Third Monday—Leadership Council regular meeting every month, 2 to 4:30 P. M.

Fourth Monday—Meeting of Central Office Staff Section with the Superintendent, 2 to 4:30 P. M.

At certain times of the school year it may be necessary to call

additional special meetings of the council or the council sections. Among the committees that are helpful in a council are (1) a schedule and time allotment committee that gives attention to the time schedule for instruction as a school system policy, (2) a committee on evaluation of the work of the school system, (3) a committee on school-community projects and campaigns, (4) a committee on personnel practices, and (5) others as they are needed.

It is a good policy to encourage the principals' section and the section of the central office staff to hold informal meetings where one of the principals serves as chairman of the principals' section and one of the central office staff serves as chairman of the other section. In these informal meetings, sometimes a gathering for lunch, it is possible for the members of the sections to exchange ideas and make professional contributions that the more formal meetings do not produce.

The sound organization and skillful use of a leadership council is one of the most promising developments in the field of co-ordinated local school and school system relationships today.

Superintendent's co-ordinating conferences. Good functional relationships between the local school and the school system are not automatic; they must be worked upon all the time if they are to become and remain effective. One good way to work for co-ordination of effort is to use regular and special co-ordinating conferences established by the superintendent for the dual purpose of keeping the superintendent informed upon the work of the school system and for effecting co-ordination of effort. Only two conferences of the kind that should meet regularly will be described here as illustrations.

First comes a conference on school business affairs that should meet on a regular schedule. This conference should include the head of the school department of business affairs and the head of the department of instruction, both of whom should be chief assistants to the superintendent; the superintendent; and others according to the structure and size of the school system concerned. In this conference the heads of the

departments included should report on and recommend major business actions to the superintendent. A secretary should record these actions and inform all who are concerned. When a local school principal desires to make more than a routine request in the field of business affairs, which includes items related to instruction, to building service and operation, or to office service, he should forward that request to the superintendent for consideration in the superintendent's regular co-ordinating conference on business affairs.

Second, the superintendent needs a co-ordinating conference on pupil personnel placement and services. This conference should include the head of the department of instruction and the heads of all parts of the school system's central office staff that deal with pupil personnel plans and policies. The conference should have a reporting chairman who gathers the information for the report to the superintendent and a secretary who records the actions and informs all concerned. In most school systems it will be logical to have the school registrar serve as the secretary of the co-ordinating conference on pupil personnel while the reporting chairman may be any member who is qualified to do that kind of work. The use of such a pupil personnel conference assumes that the local school faculties function as appraisal teams by studying all children and suggesting a tentative placement and assignment of service or services for the children of the local school. When this is true at the local school level, then the superintendent's co-ordinating conference can become a confirming and co-ordinating agency through co-operative action.

When the present organizational structure of any school system is inventoried in a careful manner, it will be possible to determine what other regular co-ordinating conferences should be established by the superintendent. Such an inventory will also make it possible to plan for co-ordinating conferences that do not meet on a regular schedule.

Co-ordinating machinery must serve rather than dominate.
One of the great dangers in the field of school organization is

that a plan of organization will be developed and adopted and continued in use beyond the period of its usefulness. When co-ordinating machinery is being planned, there is the temptation to design too much machinery and to permit it to continue to operate even if it does not perform the function it was designed to serve. In order to avoid this kind of domination by present machinery, it is suggested that the entire plan of local school and school system organization be subjected to an appraisal at periodic intervals. In making this appraisal much valuable work can be done by the personnel of the local school system, and their work can be reviewed by a consultant from outside the school system to obtain a more complete appraisal. It is in the field of co-ordinating the efforts of classroom, local school, and school system teams that the next great creative steps are needed in school organization. The authors of this book believe that the idea of unit teams combined with the ideas that the local school should be a unit in a neighborhood co-ordinating council and that the school system should be a unit in a community co-ordinating council provides a sound basis for functional school organization.

ORGANIZING THE LOCAL SCHOOL TO TAKE PART IN A NEIGHBORHOOD CO-ORDINATING COUNCIL

If the local school is organized in harmony with the classroom and local school team concepts, it should be easy for it to play the role of a spoke in the wheel of a neighborhood co-ordinating council. Such a council may exist in a formal or informal manner. The informal council is in operation in some form in most neighborhoods although the name may not be used and no person in the neighborhood may have thought through the machinery of co-ordination. If the term "neighborhood" is defined as approximately the area served by a local elementary school and a "neighborhood co-ordinating council" as an agency that serves a school neighborhood area, then an "area co-ordinating council" is made up of several elementary school neighborhoods and the community co-ordinating coun-

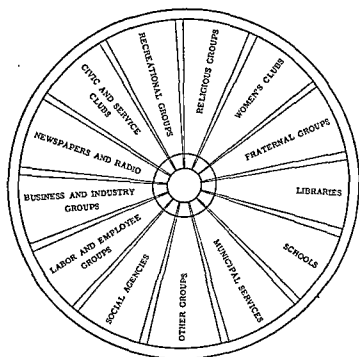


Fig. 6. Diagram of a Neighborhood or Area Co-ordinating Council.

cil includes the elementary school neighborhoods and whatever areas combine such school neighborhoods.

Space in a publication of this type permits only the brief illustration of the school neighborhood co-ordinating council. In the diagram which follows, the major elements of such a council are included.

In the role of a spoke in the neighborhood council wheel the local school team will be represented by the local professional leader, the principal, or someone designated by him. In many school neighborhoods it will be possible and good policy for the school to offer its plant as a meeting place for the neighborhood council. All local school teams should make an inventory of neighborhood organization as a basis for the co-ordination

of the efforts of the school and the neighborhood it serves. The results of such an inventory should be made available to the superintendent and his staff as information that will be helpful in planning for the co-ordination of efforts on the level of the community co-ordinating council. It is recommended that the design and development of co-ordination machinery be approached with care in every school neighborhood. A gradual development in this field of human endeavor is usually more productive than a hurried development that misses its goal.

ORGANIZING THE SCHOOL SYSTEM TO TAKE PART IN A COMMUNITY CO-ORDINATING COUNCIL

When a school system is organized in terms of classroom teams, local school teams, and the neighborhood council already described, it should be easy for the system to play the role of a spoke in the wheel of a community co-ordinating council. Most communities have some type of formal or informal co-ordinating machinery at work. It should be the work of the school system to make an inventory of community organization as a basis for the co-ordination of efforts. This inventory of community organization should be co-ordinated with the inventories of neighborhood organization that have already been recommended. The following diagram illustrates the community co-ordinating council plan.

The same caution is in order in the approach to community co-ordination as was presented in discussing the problem at the neighborhood level. One of the best ways to prepare for effective work in either neighborhood or community co-ordinating councils is to develop and maintain a well co-ordinated system of classroom and local school teams.

In the final analysis all plans of organization must be measured against the question of whether they bring people, ideas, and things into an effective working relationship that promotes the achievement of the goals of education in the elementary school.

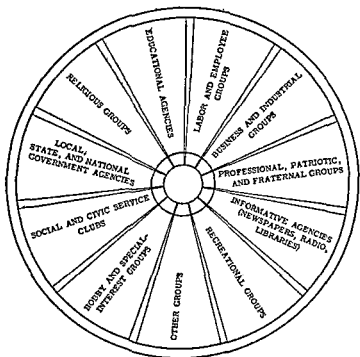


Fig. 7. Diagram of a Community Co-ordinating Council.

SUMMARY

This chapter maintains that it is the business of organization to make it possible for people, ideas, and things to serve the educational needs of girls and boys. The thesis that any plan of organization may become ineffective without continuous appraisal and adjustment, in line with the goals and conditions in a particular community, has been emphasized. The real test of any plan of organization is whether or not it promotes the goals of the school or school system that it serves.

A plan of organization that views the individual school as a team that works through the leadership of a professional captain, the principal, has been illustrated and recommended. Such a team should function as the basic unit in a school

system and be a unit of a school system team that works through the leadership of a professional captain, the superintendent. The method of problem solving has been suggested for the use of both individual and school system teams. In beginning the work of such teams the inventory technique has been recommended and illustrated.

The principle that a school head should be delegated the administrative responsibility and authority for the entire program at the individual school building has been emphasized and is believed to be essential to good school organization and operation. The school principal should be responsible to the superintendent and board of education for the educational program and for the supervision of all employees in the faculty, building service, and office service at his building.

The superintendent's office in a school system should provide the services of a consultation staff that is available to each school. Such a staff should not have administrative responsibility or authority with respect to the work of individual schools.

One of the great challenges to educational leadership is the need to co-ordinate the work of the schools in a school system without limiting the freedom of each school to serve the needs of a specific group of children in a specific neighborhood. In order to achieve an effective degree of co-ordinated effort, a participation plan based upon the idea of elected representatives who work in a faculty study and planning program, a leadership council program, and special purpose conferences and committees has been suggested and illustrated.

Another great need is a way by which the school and its neighborhood and community can work together. The suggestion is made that neighborhood, area, and community co-ordinating councils be explored as promising types of co-ordinating machinery. *The elementary school of the future must be the result of a partnership between the school, home, neighborhood, and community if the nation is to achieve the hopes, dreams, ideals, and aspirations of its people.*

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Special Areas and Subjects

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SHOULD BE SO responsive to the needs of society and the young citizen growing up within it, that in an evolving society the curriculum will never reach the point where further change is unlikely. New subjects and areas of study will be added periodically, accepted subjects and areas will receive changed emphasis, and the entire curriculum may sometimes be given a complete overhauling in the attempt to provide a balanced program of learning for all. This never-ending challenge is one of the factors that has made the elementary school field such a fascinating one to the professional person in education.

Any subject or area may receive special emphasis. It is apparent that no teacher can hope to understand all fields of instruction, or be able to work equally well in all. To help with the planning, presentation, and evaluation of the work in certain fields, it is often necessary to call in personnel specially trained in a special subject or area under consideration. Special help might take other forms too, such as specialized instructional materials and supplies, in-service education program, committee study and review, and others.

New subjects in the curriculum have frequently called for special emphasis. It has often been found that the school staff

The role of the collaborating teacher. In Chapter 1 it was shown that the school curriculum has grown by accretion with the passage of years. As the function of the school has changed to meet the needs of society and its young citizens, it has become impossible for the principal and classroom teacher to keep pace with the new demands. Growth of great cities during this period has meant the development of large school systems with their attendant resources. Special teachers of music and art early made their appearance, and they were succeeded by supervisors and/or consultants, or *vice versa*. As state legislatures have added new, prescribed courses and studies, the curriculum has expanded rapidly. Although new demands are periodically made on the schools, it seems impossible to be relieved of any of the inherited ones, and the result is a bewildering array of material to be taught.

Much trial and error seems to indicate that neither the special teacher nor the supervisor is the perfect answer in all cases. It appears that a staff of collaborating teachers—part “special” and part “consultant”—will come nearest to solving the problem. The exact field of service, the specific routine of rendering such service, the number of such personnel on the staff, and so on, should be determined by the members of the classroom team that requires such collaboration.

It is common practice to find special and collaborating teachers in the arts curriculum, and in the field of elementary science, health, and physical education. It is not unusual to find such personnel in other areas as well. Music and art, in most school systems, were among the first to receive such special consideration. Physical education, arts and crafts, household arts, industrial arts, speech correction, and some other instructional areas and services cannot be handled by the classroom teacher alone. It is in such instances that the collaborating teacher is able to make a contribution.

The collaborating teacher performs many services that promote the general school program, among which are the following: (1) defining and clarifying the contributions the special

area can make to the total school program, (2) taking the lead in organizing the course of study or progression of activities, (3) helping the classroom teacher with methods of directing the activity or learning program, (4) suggesting new materials and explaining how they may be used, (5) providing guidance in the requisition and control of materials, (6) evaluating the learning taking place, and (7) teaching the class on those occasions when it will contribute to the effectiveness of the program. As an added commentary to the last point, it should be noted that the classroom teacher is one of the few professional workers who does not have regular rest periods within the working day. One way to break up the day is to have another staff member take the children for a physical education period, an arts and crafts class, or some other special activity.

SPECIAL SUBJECTS AND AREAS IN THE CURRICULUM

It has been pointed out that the elementary school curriculum is not static, but to the contrary has been continually changing and expanding to meet the challenge of its function in society. This has meant periodic and continued addition of new subjects, changed emphasis on accepted studies, and reconsideration and reorganization of curriculum offerings, until the classroom teacher is faced with such a formidable array of material to be taught that the school day appears altogether too short. One commonly used solution is the broad-fields approach to the curriculum, and the grouping of all learning experiences into several major areas of study. This makes it possible to schedule the day into large time blocks and assure a fair proportion of the day to each major area. One such major area is the arts curriculum, which includes music, art, industrial arts, home arts, arts and crafts, dramatization, and others. Another is health, safety, and physical education.

Music education. Music education came into the curriculum as an outgrowth of the village singing schools, and it appeared as a subject of instruction in the public schools of Boston as

early as 1838.¹ However, until the early part of this century, music education was concerned *primarily* with vocal music—how best to teach sight reading, and the singing of vocal exercises.

The present emphasis upon balanced personality development is a strong influence in the music program. Music is no longer a hobby for the interested few, nor is it a tedious drill period spent in learning syllables for sight reading; rather it is a variety of aesthetic experiences intended to enrich the lives of all who come in contact with it. Music today is listening and expressing, enjoying and creating, both vocal and instrumental. The program is a flexible one made to serve the needs of all children, and is planned to provide them with learning experiences and opportunities for emotional expression that will help them to lead richer, fuller lives.

The modern music program calls for the services of more than a special teacher of music. Vocal instruction is usually carried on by the classroom teacher; but the collaborating teacher can do much to assist in these days of increasing enrolments in the elementary schools. The collaborating teacher can not only teach the class certain lessons, but also can assume the responsibility for extra-class projects, such as dramatic skits, dances, and other special musical productions that should come within the experiences of all children. The instrumental music program requires the services of one or more specially qualified persons. If the school system is large enough, one person should be responsible for stringed instruments and orchestra, while a second will instruct and co-ordinate band instruments and band. When the individual school or school system is not large enough to provide these services, several schools or school systems together employ and share the services of such personnel.

Because music in its various forms should be experienced throughout the school day, the classroom teacher should be

¹ Osbourne McConathy, "Music in Our Public Schools in 1876 and Since." *Proceedings Music Teachers National Association* (1928), p. 187.

able to lead her group in simple songs and music activities. A bright, happy song after a difficult lesson will do wonders in bringing the class back to normal. Music has strong emotional appeal, and offers much in the way of stimulating emotional growth, promoting emotional stability, and permitting emotional expression in wholesome ways.

It is recognized also that music has much to offer that the busy classroom teacher cannot include in her day. As a result experiences might be lost unless the principal and teacher together work out plans to use the services of the collaborating teacher staff.

Art education. Art has very definite contributions to make to the school program that aims for balanced personality development. Originally introduced into the schools as drawing—a formal, dull, tedious period in the day—art education has been completely reorganized into an informal, interesting, creative activity. This has been accomplished by a complete change of emphasis from the old formal exercises to an art program that attempts to bring out the natural, basic art impulses that are common to all.

The modern art program is concerned with three phases: providing a rich background of experience; providing the opportunity for exploration and experimentation with many art media; and encouraging the expression of ideas, images, and original creations in whatever art medium is preferred by the child. Experience implies the study and appreciation of the art creations of others. It includes also the observation and understanding of art in the world today, in such various examples as architecture, dress designing, home decoration, commercial art, and the beauties of nature itself. Through his experience the child realizes that art is everywhere and always, that it is a part of life and living, and is everywhere about us to make life more beautiful and enjoyable. The second concern—exploration and experimentation with various media—is the one that in a restricted sense comprised the entire program of some years ago. It deals with the various media and materials the child

can use to express himself in the art form of his choice. A sincere effort on the part of the teacher to introduce new media and methods to her class will do much to break away from the cut-and-paste, or draw-the-flower-in-the-pot tedium of the past. Use of these media is a means to an end rather than an end in itself.

The third concern, that of expression, implies that the child is to be given the opportunity to design, devise, and create his own ideas in the medium he feels is best suited.

The three phases, or concerns, do not come in any particular order, and some will argue that a child should begin with the last named, while others will say that one can't express himself unless he has the background and knowledge of materials for it. The classroom teacher must manage her program so that all three elements appear in the needed proportion.

Considerable recent literature is available on the newer emphasis in art education. However, no teacher can read a book or two and absorb the philosophy over night. An interesting checklist published recently will be found valuable in evaluating the program.² Much is being done to promote the newer approach to art education. The publications of this group include a number of helpful pamphlets, and the first *Yearbook of the National Art Education Association* states the case very well.³

As with all other areas, the members of the classroom team will suggest what the art education program is to include. The principal should arrange for the special help needed to set up and promote the success of the program. Larger school systems find that a consultant in art education may be needed to coordinate the efforts of all. The school will find that a collaborating teacher has much to offer on the local level.

Industrial and household arts. Industrial and household arts are either taught by a special teacher, or by a teacher who

² Howard Conant and Clement Tetkowsky, "How Good is Your Art Program?" *National Elementary Principal*, XXX (April, 1951), 11.

³ *This is Art Education*, First Yearbook of the National Art Education Association, State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pennsylvania, 1951.

has had special preparation in the field. The nature of these classes is such that special treatment is practically mandatory. The teacher who takes these classes should, therefore, be capable of organizing and carrying on the program. The principal will consult with the teacher to help clarify goals and purposes when that appears necessary, give help when needed in evaluating the work of the pupils, help with the organization of materials, see to it that needed materials and supplies are received promptly, and see that effective teaching procedures are used.

It has been only a few generations since the eighth grade was considered terminal education. Industrial and household arts were a much more significant part of the curriculum than they appear to be now. They are found chiefly in schools that retain seventh and eighth grades, and in the junior and senior high schools. Many skills once included in this program in the elementary schools now appear in social studies, arts and crafts, or some other area. It is of interest to note that some activities of these areas are shared by boys and girls alike; that is, the industrial arts program may be used to teach girls how to use basic tools in making simple repairs about the home, such as replacing electric plugs, planning and constructing simple furniture, and so on; and the boys may learn how to sew on buttons, how to plan simple meals, and how to be a good shopper. In some cases the common courtesies and social graces are taught boys and girls in this area, although many programs use the social studies for the purpose.

Industrial arts has become an interesting and diversified area in which the use of basic tools and simple machines is applied to working in wood, metal, and plastics. It is intended to be exploratory at this stage, so that the boy who has aptitude for skilled manual work may discover it and plan to profit by it in later life. Some drawing is usually included; and printing, engraving, foundry, and other more complicated types of experience may be included if the community feels the need for them.

Household arts has evolved from the original domestic science into an area of practical interest for girls. It aims to make them self-reliant, capable, and self-confident young citizens. The experiences usually come under the headings of cooking, sewing, home-making and personality development. The latter area is of especial interest to girls at this stage, and deals with such items as making and selecting clothing suited to the individual, good manners, conduct on dates, proper makeup and "hairdos," how to get along with others in the family, how to build on good personality traits, and how to get along with boys. The outlook is one of practical use; and where this is followed, there is no problem about class attendance.

Arts and crafts. In some cases industrial arts was the source of this activity, in others it grew out of art education, and in still other schools it appeared in response to a felt need. Where possible, schools are installing an arts and crafts room as a regular activities center, and placing in it such items as workbenches, simple hand tools, paste pots, plastics, paints, nails, lumber, wire, and dozens of other materials that children use to make things.

The arts and crafts room should be a busy place. One day it may be the factory for making stage scenery, and a workshop for making plastic jewelry the next. Here is the place where the child can hammer and pound, saw and shape, plan and execute his dream into solid reality.

In the smaller school the teacher will accompany the class to the arts and crafts room and, in addition, will schedule smaller groups and committees for special projects to go there at almost any convenient time of the day. Here is an excellent opportunity to teach children to work together with little or no outside control. Larger schools may find it expedient to employ a collaborating teacher whose headquarters will be the arts and crafts room. This type of program will make possible a more flexible pupil use of the room and its facilities, and has many advantages to offer. In some cases, where the space is available in the small school for such a room, the services of a

collaborating teacher can be shared with a neighboring school to provide a good program.

In order that it may not become merely a play period, some direction and certain controls are needed. As with other arts activities, it may be necessary to lead children on and to draw them out so that they find it possible to express themselves in new media. The classroom teacher can do a very satisfactory job if he will make use of the newer materials available; but if a person with some special preparation can be secured, it will help insure the success of the program. In some cases a classroom teacher can spend part time with this activity while the other staff members share his class responsibilities.

Whatever the solution to the problem of leading this activity, the principal still has the responsibility of seeing to it that it is profitable to children. He will have to help organize the program, define its contribution to the curriculum, and in general expedite its progress in much the same manner as that of any other subject or area.

Dramatics. Play is a natural way of learning, and therein lie the charm and value of dramatics. The shy child forgets himself in the role he is playing; the aggressive child can work off surplus energy in a way which is acceptable. Children learn much in the process of developing a script for production, they work together as a unit and in committees, and they present an activity that holds much interest for their parents and friends.

On most school faculties can be found at least one person who has an interest in, and has had some experience with, dramatic productions. This person can help the principal coordinate the efforts of all classroom units for the annual Thanksgiving, Christmas, or other celebrations that concern more than one classroom. Also, the services of other collaborating teachers should be utilized when needed—the music specialist to help when choral or other music groups are involved, the art specialist to help with scenery and costuming, the industrial arts and household arts and all other personnel when they can make an effective contribution.

Somewhere in the building there should be a stage properties room open and available for all dramatic efforts. It may be a reconverted cloak closet that houses a collection of costumes and other properties; but it is a revelation to see a group of children rejoice in the treasures such a room can hold. A store of costumes does much to encourage dramatics, and it isn't at all difficult to accumulate a very satisfactory supply of them over a period of years. In addition to costumes, the properties room can be as scantily or elaborately furnished as use dictates with such items as sound-effects equipment, bits of stage properties, furniture, and so on.

Health, safety, and physical education. The aim of health instruction is to help children achieve and maintain their maximum good health. Health instruction can conveniently be included in the science program and taught by the classroom teacher. Most series of science texts include health, and in addition there are some newer materials available in the field of physical and mental health that have much to offer the busy teacher. Some state legislatures now require that safety be included in the health program; and because there is a variety of material available with but little organization of it, the principal faces a challenge in leading the development of a safety instruction program that has appeal and some continuity to it. Here again the staff is faced with the problem of trying to translate talk into action; for it is fairly easy to recite to the teacher those practices that are advisable, but it does not necessarily follow that they will actually be observed on the street. It is apparent also that each school has its own safety problems, and its program must be set up in terms of them.

Physical education aims to develop children through serving their physical being. Competitive athletics is not physical education, and has no business masquerading as such in the elementary schools. Instead, through games and physical activities closely matched to the age and maturity of the children, physical education helps insure proper physical development, promotes social growth through contests with others, and helps

emotional development by teaching that life is give-and-take, and that it is unnecessary to let a loss become a frustration.

On the primary level, the classroom teacher usually takes care of her own physical education activities. The teacher leads and teaches the games, plays the piano for gymnasium activities, and serves like the master of a three-ring circus. In spite of this, most primary school teachers do a remarkably good job of it. In third and fourth grades, the play of children tends to become competitive. Boys and girls should be separated for some of their gymnasium activities. Teachers may share responsibilities here by arranging for one to take all the boys while the others take all the girls. By fifth and sixth grades the differences in likes and dislikes of boys and girls become even more pronounced, and wherever possible specially-prepared physical education personnel should assume the responsibility. Where seventh and eighth grades are included in the school, the physical education teacher is very difficult to replace. If the gymnasium period is to realize anywhere near its possibilities, the teacher will need to be dressed for the class. There will be charts and records to maintain, and a careful study of individual children to attempt to give them all the types of physical activity that will insure the results desired.

The principal will need to organize and co-ordinate the program through careful scheduling of physical education facilities; he will observe the class to see that good teaching practices are followed; he will secure such materials and equipment as are needed to implement the program; and he will help work out a statement that defines the contribution of physical education to the growth and development of children. There will often be the demand for interschool athletic games, and he will need to make whatever arrangements are necessary to supervise and control these after-school contests. A certain amount of competition can be wholesome at this stage; but it is better to let children work off their energy in a good intramural program than to let them work up a "championship complex"

at too early an age. Such activities are extra-classroom in nature, and not a part of physical education.

The school library. Every elementary school should have a school library that operates as a teaching services and instructional materials center. All persons in the school team should find it easy and satisfying to use the school library services. The school library should be directed, organized, staffed, and housed so that the needs of the school and neighborhood that it serves will be met effectively.

The purposes of the school library are identical with the purposes of the elementary school. Where the real purpose of the school library is understood by all members of a school team, the library becomes an essential element in operating a good school program in every classroom, in extra-class activities, and in the homes of the neighborhood. The basic function of the elementary school library is shifting from overemphasis upon the selection and management of books and a limited supply of instructional materials to a skillful job of helping all members of a school team perform the teaching process effectively. Such a function is performed through making a wide variety of books and all kinds of instructional materials readily available for functional use. This shift in the philosophy of school library function means that the library will serve children, faculty, parents, and neighborhood people.

The organization of the school library program should be in harmony with the plan of organization used in the school that the library serves. In a good individual school library organization the school librarian should be a regular member of the school faculty. Whenever possible, the librarian should work full time in one school in order to make it possible for her to know and work in close co-operation with all children, the faculty, parents, and neighborhood people. In very small schools it is probably best to organize the program so that the librarian will do some regular classroom teaching in order to make it possible for her to do full-time work at one school. In larger schools it should be helpful to the school librarian to do

a limited amount of regular classroom teaching in order to keep in close contact with children and in touch with the instructional program in the regular classroom setting.

It is recommended that the school library program include a wide variety of services and instructional aids. Among the services suggested are (1) the functional teaching of children to use basic library procedures and skills; (2) a creative program for suggesting teaching aids that will be appropriate for the instructional program as it is being operated in each classroom and in the general program of the school; (3) a leadership program in the selection, organization, housing, and use of items included in the school library; (4) an advisory service to all children on work-type and recreational reading; (5) an advisory service on reading materials for individual children and for families; (6) the preparation, distribution, and interpretation of book lists, film guides, and a catalog of community resources; and (7) other services that supplement the program of instruction. Among the instructional aids that should be found in the school library are books, pamphlets, reference sets, dictionary, atlas, maps, magazines, film strips, films, machines for appraisal and improvement of reading, and other items that are useful in supplementing and enriching instruction. It is recommended that the selection, housing, and use of audiovisual aids be a regular service of the school library program and that where personnel is employed to give special emphasis to the use of audiovisual aids that such personnel be part of the school library staff.

In the field of school system library organization it is recommended that a department of library services be a part of the division of instruction. Such a department should be under the leadership of a consultant in school library services. The department of library services should give leadership in all of the fields that have been mentioned in the discussion of the individual school library plus other services. Among the other services should be in-service education of the library staff, the centralized ordering, cataloging, distributing, and maintenance

of the materials used in school libraries. The library consultant should be a regular member of the leadership council and should be an active participant in the program of instructional planning and curriculum development. In many instances it is helpful to have the library consultant serve as chairman of the professional library committee of the faculty.

The work of the school library consultant and school library staff should be organized in such a way as to facilitate co-operation with the public library system in the community.

The most important single element in the provision of school library services is the employment of a well-qualified school librarian. Such a person should have a personality that makes it easy for the members of the school team to work with the librarian. The school librarian should have a wide knowledge of library materials, methods, organization, and operation, and should be familiar with the educational program so that the learning process may be directed toward the attainment of the goals of the school. Every school librarian should be prepared to develop and direct the work of a staff of student library aides as a learning opportunity for children and as a school service. As has been said, where a school is too small to be able to have a full-time school librarian, the teacher-librarian plan may be used with good results.

It is recommended that each elementary school make provisions to house a centralized library that is co-ordinated with classroom libraries. The library services center should include a general reading room and work room space that is easy to supervise. The general reading room should be large enough to seat a classroom group plus other library users equal to half of a class group as a minimum. A reasonable standard for floor space in such a general reading room is 25 square feet per pupil. Library storage and shelving space should be provided according to the variety and volume of instructional materials that are to be used in the school to be served.

One of the measures of the type of curriculum in use in an elementary school is the kind of library services that the school

utilizes. Good elementary schools have and use good library services.

Other special emphases. In attempting to serve their children and community better, school systems have given special emphasis to the work of the school by the use of new materials and equipment, new methods and techniques.

Many special services can be secured or developed to give the particular emphasis needed in the school program. Audio-visual aids have long been used in the attempt to make lessons realistic. Development of educational films, film-strips, slides, and long-playing recordings continues to improve the effectiveness of the aids, and indicates that the ultimate has not been reached. Radio has been used more or less effectively since it first appeared on the American scene. Many school systems and educational institutions are doing an outstanding piece of work in radio-utilization. Television is a more recent field in which to work; but its acceptance and use where practicable have been immediate. Both radio and television make it possible for the school to reach all members of the school team, and thus provide an educational program for the entire community. Other services found frequently include speech correction, special programs for handicapped children, and staff guidance and counselor service.

Special services will depend upon the special emphasis needed in the school. This should be determined by the members of the school unit, who in their evaluation of the school program find that it would more effectively serve the community and its children if special emphasis were applied to certain subjects or areas. The request for these services should then come from the office of the principal, because he acts as spokesman for his school. It is apparent, then, that such requests will vary from community to community and from school to school within a community.

Any subject or area may receive special emphasis. It sometimes happens that a school is not satisfied with the way learning is taking place in an established subject or area of the

curriculum. When this occurs, the area becomes of special interest to the school and by the nature of the attack upon the problem, takes on the characteristics of a "special" subject.

To illustrate the point, consider for a moment the language arts, one area in the broad-fields approach to the curriculum. Teachers of language arts are concerned with the communication skills—reading, writing, speaking, and listening. This area has been characterized as the tool box that contains the necessities for successful operation in all other subjects and areas of the curriculum. Specifically, language arts includes development of the skills and abilities formerly assigned to reading, handwriting, spelling, language and grammar, composition, speaking and debate, and other "subjects" concerned with oral and written communication. Any particular division of language arts may be singled out for special emphasis, and several examples are given to show how this may occur.

1. *Handwriting.* At one time extremists went so far as to suggest that handwriting had no place in the school, and that because everyone was going to use the typewriter, there was no sense in wasting school time learning how to write beautifully. The opposite direction is taken by some school systems, and special teachers are employed to come in and teach handwriting while the classroom teacher looks on. Handwriting has always been a controversial topic, and it appears that some members of the public always feel it is neglected. However, it would seem that enough is known about handwriting to make it possible for the school staff to work out its own approach to problems that might arise. Studies by Judd, Ayres, Thorndike, Freeman, and others in this field have settled many of the fundamental questions regarding the teaching of penmanship, and the alert principal will familiarize himself with the results of such studies and pass the information on to his faculty.

2. *Reading.* The great emphasis upon reading in recent years has brought about the appearance of reading consultants in many school systems. Some schools have gone a step further and are employing collaborating teachers in this field, it being

felt that the increasing teacher load in the elementary school makes it impossible for the regular teacher to meet the needs of all the children in her class. Still other solutions are being tried in the attempt to improve the school program. Much research is carried on in the field of reading, and publishers are using the results to prepare new reading programs. It would appear that in general principals and teachers who make use of available information can do an efficient job of teaching reading without the help of the specialist. This is not to imply, however, that factors such as teacher-load, pupil-ability, school facilities, and others can be ignored. There will be instances where special services are necessary to enable the staff to conduct a good program. On a school-system basis the specialist can perform such services as testing, diagnosing, and prescribing materials and methods for individual cases. If the school system is not large enough to afford such services alone, they may be shared with another.

3. *Spelling*. In written communication, spelling is an important element. Both the general public and the school staff are interested in seeing that children learn to spell correctly. A first consideration is to learn what words children should know how to spell. Research in the field of vocabulary by Betts, Dolch, Hockett, Horn, Rinsland, Thorndike, and others has pretty well established what words are actually used by children. The word list assembled by Rinsland⁴ will be found very helpful to the faculty that is interested in vocabulary. A second problem is concerned with teaching methods. The wordbook approach is widely accepted, and many schools are entirely satisfied with results obtained. Others prefer to assemble their own word list from the written and oral communication of the children in their classes. Proponents claim the latter method is more practical because it insures learning words actually used and using words that have been studied. One comparison of these two methods found that there was little difference in

⁴ Henry D. Rinsland, *A Basic Vocabulary of Elementary School Children* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1945).

final results.⁸ It is apparent that teachers are not yet satisfied with spelling results, and although it may be profitable to spend faculty time in frank and careful evaluation of progress made, it is doubtful whether special personnel is needed. The principal can help his faculty by securing for them the results of studies already made, by taking the lead in evaluating the work as it is being done, and by thorough study of available data making recommendations for faculty consideration.

4. *Other subjects.* From the foregoing illustrations, it is obvious that language and grammar, composition, speaking, debate, and all other concerns of the language arts could be accorded special emphasis. The school would determine whether that special emphasis would involve the faculty alone, or whether special personnel such as consultants or collaborating teachers would be called in. The illustrations given also demonstrate that special treatment could be found desirable in any particular section of any other subject area as well.

School or curriculum divisions may receive special attention. It has been shown how special emphasis may be found desirable for any subject or area. A school system may find it profitable to employ special personnel to co-ordinate the work in some larger school or curriculum division. For example, a kindergarten consultant may be employed to help establish a kindergarten program. It is unusual for such services to be needed for very long after the program is successfully operating. Other consultants might be found on the primary or intermediate level, or on a subject-area basis such as social studies, language arts, arithmetic, and others. The size of the school system, and the individual buildings within the system, will to a large extent determine what special help is required. It is obvious that the principal of a school of four hundred children will be able to devote much more time to the special needs of the school than will the principal of a school of two thousand children. Other factors affecting a request for special help in-

⁸ Carl H. Delacato, "Methods of Teaching Spelling," *Elementary English*, XXIX (January, 1952), 26.

clude the peculiar needs of the community, the needs of the children, the willingness of the community to finance a better program, the alertness of the staff, the concern of all members of the school team for a better program, and the type of school program desired by the team. It is obvious that the school that is satisfied with its program, that never searches for newer and better ways of doing things, is going to drone along from day to day, not even aware that the shingles are falling from the roof until the rains come. A little extra emphasis at certain times, and where needed, would have kept the shingles on the roof and the resulting damage might have been avoided.

ORGANIZATION SHOULD BE MADE FLEXIBLE

Scheduling the services of special personnel on a school-to-school basis creates problems. The adjustment of building schedules to accommodate the "special," time lost in travel, differences between schools and their routines, and insufficient contact with children, regular faculty members, and parents are factors that need to be taken into account. Wherever school enrolment is large enough, collaborating teachers should be assigned to the building staff. Two smaller schools can share such services to good advantage if the collaborating teacher can spend half days in each. It is obvious, however, that carrying this much farther soon spreads such services so thin as to make them of little value.

It was pointed out in Chapter 8 that a good school organization promotes the achievement of valid goals of education. It has been shown that any subject, subject area, or division of the school may receive special attention when the members of the school team feel the necessity of it. The next step, then, would be consideration of a type of school organization that is flexible enough to permit whatever special emphasis is necessary.

The classroom unit. The elementary school is customarily organized into classroom units. These units may be established on the basis of academic achievement, chronological age, social

and emotional maturity, type of work to be accomplished, or a combination of these and other factors. The usual practice is to assign one teacher to each classroom and give her the responsibility for guidance and instruction of the children. This type of organization creates what is known as the self-contained classroom.

The teacher is leader of the classroom team and is in full charge of the program in her room. The teacher should have access to whatever materials, equipment, building resources, community resources, office services, and resource personnel needed to assist her in providing a balanced learning program for all. When it is operating effectively, the self-contained classroom unit plan is well suited to directing the efforts and resources of all toward the goals set up by the classroom team.

In this type organization, collaborating teachers work closely with a classroom teacher who knows her children well enough to provide the special information such a person needs. Conversely, the collaborating teacher can advise the classroom teacher regarding the work going on in the class. For work with the class, the collaborating person may be called into the room to work with the children in their homeroom environment. In other cases, the class group may be scheduled to meet in a work or activity center where special facilities or equipment will be available for the special instructor.

The self-contained classroom permits the organization of resources and facilities as well as personnel. It is true that departmental and platoon organization also permit special scheduling, but some of the advantages gained by long and close association with a group of children are lost. It would seem that, because the teacher in the self-contained classroom would know her children better, it should follow that she would be better able to request specific aids and services for her particular group, insuring the best possible learning experiences.

The school unit. The modern elementary school is a neighborhood social and cultural center for children and adults, in addition to being an institution of learning. It is a unit that

operates with a minimum of direction from the central office, because it is as completely equipped and staffed as possible. Such a school may be called a self-contained school.

The self-contained school has a complete staff. Each class group has a teacher assigned to it. Collaborating teachers requested by the school are assigned to the building staff. In addition, a building principal and any needed assistants, a school nurse, and such office personnel and building service personnel as will be needed to complete the staff will be on hand to operate the school as a neighborhood unit. To co-ordinate with the school system, the services and counsel of central office personnel will be available when and as needed.

The self-contained school has a complete plant. The heating plant and utilities operate independently of any other unit. Equipment, materials, and supplies are assigned to the building so that the staff knows what resources it has. Each school has its own audiovisual equipment facilities, its own storeroom, and such work and activity centers as are needed. Building resources and the desires of the school team will determine what work and activity centers are provided. Those of special significance are (1) library-materials center, (2) gymnasium, (3) art and/or arts and crafts room, (4) music room, and (5) multipurpose room equipped with lighted stage, properties rooms, and dark shades. Where industrial and household arts are included in the curriculum, facilities must be provided. Because they are costly, several smaller schools frequently share them. Where seventh and eighth grades are included in the elementary school, facilities need to be provided for the teaching of science either in a special science center or as an extension of services to be had in a specially equipped home-room, arts and crafts room, multipurpose room, or some other work and activity center. Three service centers should be recognized: the administrative offices, the health-guidance center, and the cafeteria, which more and more schools are installing.

The co-ordinated neighborhood. Inasmuch as each classroom team functions more efficiently as a unit and the principal

guides these units to operate as one co-ordinated whole, it will become apparent that the school has become the life center of the neighborhood. There will be close working relationships between the faculty, parents, children, and community leaders. There will be an active Parent-Teacher Association that will take on the nature of a home-and-school organization. Parents and teachers will be working together to promote the kind of education the school system and the school team believe best for children. This means that areas needing special emphasis will be defined, and that support will be forthcoming when special services are requested.

Increasing enrolments may mean that some work and activity centers will have to be abandoned and the space converted into classrooms. Heavy teacher load will mean that the services of collaborating teachers and other special personnel will be in more demand in the near future than now. It is always interesting to speculate on what the future holds. The authors' viewpoint on what the future holds for the elementary school is set forth in Chapter 21.

SUMMARY

Any subject, subject area, or curriculum division may receive special emphasis. Physical education, industrial arts, household arts, arts and crafts, music education, and art education are among those which usually receive such consideration because they require special facilities and special skills on the part of the instructor. Subjects or areas new to the curriculum may require special treatment, and dissatisfaction with the program in existent subject areas or in curriculum and school divisions may also bring about special emphasis.

The principal as head of the school unit consults with the other members of the school team to determine where and what special services are needed. He strives to secure such services and makes whatever arrangements are necessary to insure the best possible benefit from them within his school.

The collaborating teacher is an important person in the

modern elementary school. A regular staff member, the collaborating teacher may be said to be part special teacher and part supervisor. Occasion may demand that this person take over the class because of its special nature or that the regular teacher receive help in conducting the class from the collaborating teacher. It is apparent that not all instruction and services can be performed by the classroom teacher and that additional staff members are needed.

The self-contained classroom unit plan requires the services of other personnel to insure that children receive balanced learning experiences. However, this plan is well adapted to scheduling whatever special services are needed and will permit any special emphasis found to be desirable by the members of the school team.

The self-contained school has a complete staff of regular and collaborating teachers, and such administrative and service personnel as will enable it to act as a complete unit. It has complete building facilities including work, activity, and service centers as determined desirable by the school unit.

As school enrolments increase, collaborating teachers and other personnel who supply special or auxiliary services will be more in demand than at present to insure a balanced learning program for all.

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The School Office as a Service Center

THE ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE HAS BEEN A poorly conceived unit of elementary school buildings until within very recent years. Early elementary schools had no offices, probably because these schools did not have supervising principals. As the schools increased in size, problems of administration arose that necessitated the clothing of the head teacher with administrative power and the release of this teacher from some of his teaching load to take care of managerial duties. The proper performance of some of these duties required room space separate from the regular classroom. If unused space existed in a school, it was often appropriated by the head teacher for office purposes. Perhaps the space may have been only a cloak room or a large closet, but it sufficed until the needs for office services were greatly increased.

In rapidly growing city school systems, the size of elementary schools had to be increased. An example of this is the Quincy School in Boston erected in 1848 for the purpose of testing experimentally the application of the graded plan of the Prussian Volksschule, which was beginning to attract the attention of American educators faced with the problem of

enlarged building programs for city school systems. The Quincy School was a replica of the typical *Volkschule* in Prussian cities. It was four stories high, including basement, and contained eight classrooms each 31.5 feet long, 26.5 feet wide, and 13 feet high. Each classroom contained seating accommodations for 56 pupils. The fourth floor of the building was designed to serve as a lecture hall that would accommodate around 700 pupils.¹ The building plan did not provide office space, inasmuch as the principal was expected to teach full time.

THE EARLIEST OFFICES PROVIDED IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

By 1875, space designated for office purposes began to appear in the architectural plans of elementary school buildings. The space provided could scarcely be called an office, if measured by the concept of the modern school office. It was rudimentary in concept and could be characterized simply as waste space utilized for office purposes. The plans available show that some of the offices were little more than large closets having neither ventilation nor outside light.

Such an office is reported by Moehlman² for the Webster School in Detroit, erected in 1874. This school is said to have been the first in that city planned by a superintendent of schools.

School boards and architects gradually realized that the assumption of administrative functions by a school principal required that buildings be provided with office facilities. Between 1875 and 1900 space was allotted to the office in elementary schools, but the conception of the place of the office in the organization and administration of the school had changed only slightly. The architectural plans for elementary schools during the period show very generally a small room on the first or second floor designated as office. The building plans

¹ Henry Barnard, *School Architecture* (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1849) p. 207.

² A. B. Moehlman, "The Evolution of the Public School Plant," *American School Board Journal*, LXXVII (October, 1928), 44.

in large city school systems, such as Detroit, Chicago, and St. Louis, reveal very little development in the conception of the school office as a functional unit of an elementary school until after 1900.

School buildings erected in Detroit during the period 1894-1906 contained small rooms designated as offices. The Van Dyke School, erected in 1894, had a small office that opened off the corridor on the first floor.³ It consisted of a single room. The Jones School, erected twelve years later, in 1906, had a small office that was situated on the second floor and contained built-in cases and a closet, thus indicating a tendency toward experimentation with this important unit of the school building. In 1915, elementary school buildings of Detroit were still being planned with single-room offices. The Kennedy School, erected in 1916, had an alcove leading from the small office room to the corridor, removing the office somewhat from the traffic of the corridor and serving as a makeshift waitingroom for office callers.⁴ The Maybee School, erected the same year, had a clinic adjoining the single-room office. Thus, the characteristic features of the modern elementary school office in Detroit were beginning to take shape.⁵

School buildings erected in Chicago shortly after the great fire of 1871 provided no office space in the architectural plans. Small rooms not suitable for classroom use were sometimes used by the principals for office purposes. In the early eighties, the usual plan was to place a small office on the stair landing between the first and second floors. No doubt it was placed there to be easily accessible to both floors. Other administrative units, such as storerooms, were placed on other stair landings, often at a considerable distance from the office itself. During the later nineties and the early part of the twentieth century, many schools were constructed in Chicago with the offices placed on the landing of the main stairs. This usually raised

³ *Ibid.*, 139.

⁴ *Ibid.* (December, 1928), p. 62.

⁵ *Ibid.* (December, 1928), p. 133.

the office a few steps above the level of the first-floor corridor. The space was approximately 17 feet by 25 feet and was usually divided into rooms with a connecting archway, one being designated on the architectural plans as the office and the other as the library. Subsequently, the partition was removed and all the space used for office purposes. The room had a low ceiling and had no storage space or toilet facilities. This practice continued in elementary school buildings down to 1910 or 1912, when the office was given a more prominent place in the school building plans, although it was still conceived as a single room for the principal.

A study of the floor space allocated to the elementary school office in the city of Chicago in buildings erected during three periods—1878 to 1897, 1898 to 1917, and 1918 to 1937—reveals an interesting development. In the first period, only one half of one per cent of the total floor area of the buildings was planned for administrative uses. This percentage was increased to 1.2 per cent in the second period and to 1.5 per cent in the third. The average number of rooms per building provided for office purposes in the first period was less than one, signifying that some schools in the period had no office space at all. In the second period an average of 3.5 rooms was provided with an average area of 706 square feet, and in the third period 5 rooms, with an average area of 907 square feet.

As late as 1915 the standard elementary schools in St. Louis contained only a small, single room for an office.* The office usually had built-in cases, a small closet, and sometimes a lavatory. The other administrative units—namely, storeroom, and office for physician and nurse—were placed wherever space would permit without any thought of the centralization of administrative functions in the school.

INFLUENCE OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS ON OFFICE PLANS

With the appointment of the nonteaching principal in city elementary schools, the plan of the school office began to

*The Pierre Laclède School, which was completed in 1915, had an office of the type described.

undergo change. Space arrangements of the office were gradually determined by administrative needs rather than by architectural convenience or traditional concepts. As a result, the single-room office in elementary schools was supplanted with a suite of rooms designed to facilitate the performance of administrative functions. Emphasis on the study of children by teachers and principal requires space for the filing of records and reports and for specialized services, such as those rendered by physicians, dentists, psychologists, nurses, attendance officers, and school social workers. The addition of these services requires increased office space. Likewise the need for duplicating materials for the use of teachers and the housing of textbooks and educational supplies for pupils made necessary enlarged space for storage, space for clerks, and conference rooms for the principal and his assistants.

In the city of Chicago, one of the first large school systems to give the principal an administrative and a supervisory status, distinct developments, as previously indicated in the expansion of office space, began to appear around 1920. The Gale School, erected in 1922 to house approximately 1,000 pupils, revealed a new conception of office functions. The office suite supplanted the office room. Not only was the space arranged for the grouping of administrative functions, but an entirely new conception of administrative offices was indicated through built-in conveniences.

Similarly in other large city school systems changes in the conception of the elementary school office are found in the annual reports of superintendents of schools. However, great departures in office planning did not generally appear until the decade of the 1930's.

THE MODERN CONCEPTION OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The administrative office as a service center for the school is the final stage in office evolution. This requires that the office be located in the building so that it is convenient of access to

those from outside who may desire to call at the school as well as to those within the school who come to the office for services.

The present tendency to favor one-story schools for elementary grades eliminates part of the difficulty experienced when offices were located far from the main entrance of the building and above the ground floor. In addition, the broadened conception of office services necessitates a much greater allotment of space to the office than formerly. Furthermore, facilities for clerical assistants must be provided commensurate with the services that the modern school office is expected to render.

1. *Office as center in facilitating communication.* In a one-room school unit the teacher must perform many functions besides those of carrying on instruction. A telephone should of course be provided in order that the teacher can communicate with the out-of-school world. The teacher will also have to receive visitors and persons who call in an official capacity. In addition, parents who have children in the school may also call to inquire about the progress of their children. As a result of having to perform the functions indicated, the primary responsibility of the teacher, classroom instruction, suffers many interruptions.

In schools with more than a single classroom, whether parts of a system or not, the interruptions from sources indicated will tend to increase. Hence, officers responsible for the management of such schools usually designate some teacher as head of the school. As the number of classrooms in a school increase, the demands made on the head teacher likewise increase. In order to prevent the interruption of teaching, usually the head is released either part time or full time to perform the service function of maintaining communications and of acting as intermediary executive between the central office of the system and the individual school and its local community.

This function of maintaining communications may require receiving and making telephone calls, writing letters, receiving callers, giving information, keeping records, making reports,

and the like. The services here listed increase with the size of the school. In large schools enrolling 500 pupils or more, the responsibility for maintaining communications may involve considerable time. This service warrants the employment of a clerk or secretary to relieve the principal of some office responsibility in order that he may have time for other services of greater importance to the school.

Schools that are large enough to require the services of more than one clerk will find it necessary to organize the office work and to assign duties on the basis of function in order to establish responsibility and to avoid conflict between personnel. Where several persons, including the principal, undertake to perform office services, it is essential that functions be differentiated and specifically assigned with relations defined and lines of authority indicated. In the development of a plan for efficient office management, the office layout is an important factor. Administrative and record forms are developed to facilitate the managerial work of the office. For example, one clerk is usually designated as information secretary. This individual receives office callers, answers the telephone calls, takes messages, and sees that the messages reach the persons for whom they are intended. A form is often used in reporting calls with the information given to the persons concerned.

The importance of the efficient administration of the communication service can scarcely be overemphasized. Public relations may be snarled through abruptness, impertinence, discourtesy, or lack of tact on the part of the clerk at the information desk in the principal's office or at the office telephone. Because of this possibility, training in the performance of communication duties cannot be taken for granted. Moreover, in the assignment of personnel to this post, desired qualities and characteristics are essential. Indeed all office personnel should be fully instructed regarding what is expected of school employees who meet the public or who deal with the public by telephone. The development of good communication

services in a public school office requires training and supervision. A high standard of efficiency should be exacted.

To this point the discussion of communication has pertained to that between the outside community and the school through the local school office as a clearing house. This, as previously indicated, is extremely important. However, the intramural communications are also of great importance because school morale may be seriously impaired through the inefficient administration of school communication. Teachers are entitled to receive direct and courteous answers to their questions and to have important messages cleared promptly. In addition, they should receive messages from the outside even though they are not privileged to leave their classrooms to respond to messages except under unusual circumstances.

In communicating with the principal in the office, the teacher should make an appointment with the principal unless he is free to communicate casually with the teacher. The maintenance of office hours by the principal and the scheduling of appointments through the office secretary who is in charge of that service is a routine matter that should be understood and practiced.

Many schools have interroom telephone systems to facilitate communication within the school from the principal or his designated representatives with teachers. Public address systems are also installed in many schools to permit broadcasting of messages from the office to the different units of the school. Electrical communication panels can be added as part of this equipment to permit the broadcasting of music programs, radio programs, speeches, and the like, either to individual classrooms or throughout the school. Programs originating in particular classrooms can also be broadcast to other classrooms within the building when and if desired. The type of equipment described is very flexible and can be adapted to the particular needs of any school through the firms that manufacture this kind of school equipment.

Faculty mail boxes are now commonly installed in outer

offices to facilitate written communication by the principal with his staff. This, of course, requires that faculty boxes be visited daily. These boxes are also used for the distribution of mail, which is now customarily delivered to the school office in most urban school systems.

Some principals issue daily or weekly bulletins and instructions in mimeographed or dittoed form through the faculty mail boxes. Other principals issue such material weekly and supplement it with special bulletins when it appears desirable to communicate important information or instructions to staff members.

2. *Office as counseling center for teachers.* Because the most important duty of the school principal is the improvement of instruction, it is essential that he allocate a considerable part of his office time to working with teachers. The improvement of instruction cannot be imposed on a staff of teachers by order or decree. The approach to the solution of the problem must be that of consulting with them regarding their individual needs. This necessitates familiarity with the work of the staff acquired through classroom visiting, through the careful study of tests and examinations, and through the diagnosis of the strength and weakness of individual teachers. Opportunities must also be provided the teachers to take their problems to the principal for conference and advice. Seldom can this be done in the teacher's classroom. The office of the principal must therefore be planned and operated to facilitate the counseling function for the teacher group.

Counseling is seldom successful unless carried on under favorable conditions. The office should have a room that can be organized as a conference room in which privacy is provided. This room should be appropriately equipped for conference purposes. It should have a table, several chairs, bookcase, and magazine stand, in addition to the regular desk and chair of the principal. Although the physical facilities are important, the skill of the principal as a counselor is of primary importance.

The purposes and methods of classroom visiting as a prelim-

inary step in teacher counseling have undergone marked changes in recent years. The old idea of classroom visiting merely for the purpose of inspection has been superseded by participation in the educational enterprise. It is assumed that the principal is familiar with the nature of the work being carried on in each classroom and that he has had a share in its planning. When he visits the classroom, he comes either to observe how the work is progressing or at the request of a teacher to give counsel and advice. In either case, a special conference in the office after the visitation is generally desirable.

When new teachers are being inducted into the school program, a preliminary conference for counseling purposes is necessary before classroom visitation. This conference may be utilized by the principal to pave the way for natural and purposeful access to the classroom of the particular teacher. In the conference the principal may invite the teacher in question to outline verbally the unit, project, or problem under development and describe the types of activities in which the pupils are likely to be engaged when the principal visits the room. The teacher may be invited to indicate needs as to materials, equipment, or particular assistance she would like to have. This is intended to help the teacher to realize that the principal is a partner in her teaching problems, to prepare the way for his participation in classroom projects through visitation, and to establish a basis for future conferences.

The principal should not fail to make clear to the members of his staff that classroom visits are solely for the purpose of familiarizing himself with the work of the school as a means of co-operating with teachers. He should especially encourage invitations from the teachers to observe work in progress and in such cases he should strive to comply with the requests of his teachers. He should always make his visits as informal as possible and without disturbance to teacher or pupils.

If conferences are suggested after visitation by either principal or teacher, the reason for the conference should be made

clear and the data needed in the conference should be specified, when possible. If effective counseling is to result from a conference, definite information should be considered and not hazy statements of opinion or superficially prepared plans. Friendliness, fairness, sympathetic understanding, and a sense of humor on the part of the principal both in classroom visitation and in conference will always be appreciated by the teacher. In such a climate, the best in counseling can be expected.

Mutual understanding of the issues in classroom teaching can scarcely be secured in a school that is conducted without frequent conferences between principal and teachers. It is difficult to understand how the counseling function under consideration in this section can be carried on without extensive use of the principal's office as a counseling center.

3. *Office as counseling center for parents.* Parents of school children are vitally interested in their progress. Periodic reports that are intended to inform parents regarding the growth and development of their children are often far from satisfying. These reports generally invite the parents to visit the school and confer with the principal or teacher if further information is desired or if the parent feels that by communicating with a representative of the school the progress of the child can be improved.

In a sense the parent who sends a child to school is dependent on the school for guidance if the home is to co-operate effectively in the education of the child. Many parents who might make an effective contribution to the education of their children often fail to do so because of the fear that whatever they might do or say would confuse rather than help the child. They both desire and need counseling as to the part they could play in the work of their children in school and at home.

Parents who come with their children on admission to school are often able to furnish the school with valuable information and receive in return guidance regarding their own educational duties and responsibilities toward their children. The contact

that they make with the school principal at the time of admission of their children often results in the establishment of a co-operative relationship that has reciprocal benefit to both school and home. Not all parents secure this benefit because many send their children to school and refrain from visiting the school unless requested to come by principal or teacher. The counseling that they might receive regarding their participation in the formal education of their children is therefore lost by default.

The modern school should operate its office as a service agency for parents in order that the resources of the home may be ascertained and used in the work of the school. Although it would be desirable for all parents to know the school principal and the teachers of their children and to establish a friendly co-operative relationship, it is scarcely possible. However, parents of certain types of children will no doubt be urged to come to school and to contribute what they can to the understanding of the child by the school. This is often necessary because of the fact that one or both parents may be a disturbing influence in a child's adjustment to school. In such cases, counseling by the principal becomes an essential service to the parent or parents involved, because parent adjustment may be preliminary to child adjustment.

Parents of children who possess exceptional abilities but who do not work at capacity level and children who are experiencing special difficulties in their school work should visit the school to receive advice as to what the home can contribute to the solution of the problems of the children. It would be beneficial to all parents to know those who direct the progress of their children and to confer regarding the progress that is being made.

Problems of the health of school children should bring the home and the school together in a counseling relationship, because the responsibility for corrective and remedial measures is largely the responsibility of the home. Because health may seriously affect the educational progress of some children, it is

imperative that the school counsel with the parents concerned regarding means to be employed to improve the health conditions that affect the school progress of their children.

In counseling with parents, the school does not pretend to give final answers regarding their children. The counselor poses questions for discussion and seeks to give and receive information that may throw light on the behavior of the child. The findings resulting from the conference may require changes on the part of parents and on the part of the school.

It is a well-known fact that gulfs of misunderstanding often exist between children and parents especially when children are in the teen-age period. This misunderstanding may seriously affect the conduct and attitude of children in school and not infrequently result in maladjustment. Both children and parents are often loath to make a move that might resolve the misunderstanding. If its effects are noticeable in school, the principal should seek to establish understanding through conference with parents, children, or both. The assumption of the responsibility for counseling with parents in such cases is one of the fine developments in modern schools.

Some schools have sought to cultivate understanding between parents and children through handbooks prepared for parents and through workshops on child growth and development for parents and teachers. Both services have met with the enthusiastic approval of parents. School administrators and teachers have also benefited both directly and indirectly from these services because better co-operation on the part of parents and better adjustment on the part of pupils have resulted.

Not all interviews with the principal need to be held in the office. Sometimes interviews may be casual and the opportunity to counsel with the parent may be fully as satisfactory as that in which an appointment is scheduled in the principal's office. However, the scheduled appointment is generally more satisfactory since the counseling interview does not have to be hurried because of interruptions and other distractions. Moreover, it is generally possible to have both parents present

at a scheduled interview more frequently than in a casual interview. The office should provide the privacy necessary to such conferences.

4. *Office as the research center of the school.* If the school office is to answer the questions of teachers, parents, and the central administration of a school system, it must assemble, tabulate, and interpret the important facts in the growth and development of children. This involves not only the collection of reports from teachers, attendance officers, psychologists, nurses, and physicians, but also the preparation, preservation, and analytical study of records. Such work is not regarded as a high type of research because it consists chiefly in fact finding. If nothing were done about the facts collected in the school office, the work of reporting and recording could scarcely be considered as research. But if the work is systematically done and is carried to the point of identifying problems and of seeking solutions for the problems discovered, it can result in very good research.

The office must be more than a repository of records. The activities carried on in relation to the records must also be more than mere clerical compilations if the office is to fulfill its function as the research center of a school. Answers to the problems of child growth and development should emerge from the work of the office. These answers should help to modify the progress of pupils and to determine the procedures of teachers and administrators. Furthermore, they may alter the practices of parents and even result in the modification of home and community life.

Some contend that the school principal cannot find time to engage in research activities without neglecting his administrative duties and misdirecting the efforts of his teachers, that the atmosphere of the school with its varied activities and personnel problems is not conducive to the conduct of research, and that the responsibility for research must be left largely to university professors and laboratory schools. Others maintain that research is most valuable when it deals with actual school

problems. Such research must necessarily center in the school office where the records of the pupils are housed, whether it is carried on by the school principal and his assistants or through co-operation with research workers from outside the school.

It is essential that the records of the school office yield answers to the questions of the teaching staff regarding learning, instructing, and managing pupils if wholehearted co-operation is to be secured in the keeping of records and in the making of reports. Such work tends to become meaningless routine when it fails to return something in the way of values to those who are called upon to perform the labor. A moderate amount of research is therefore indispensable if the staff is to participate with enthusiasm in the collection of office data. The very least a staff should be willing to accept is that the records and reports required by the office be summarized and returned with an interpretation of the findings.

5. *Office as a repository of school records.* Every child who attends an elementary school is entitled to have preserved in the archives of the school a record of his progress as a part of his educational history. In most school systems this record is kept on a cumulative record card. The data from which the record is prepared are generally filed in pocket-file folders. Examinations, tests, anecdotal records, written communications with the home, reports from other schools attended by the child, and the like are filed in this folder for subsequent analytical study in case the pupil becomes a problem either in behavior or in educational adjustment.

The office must be equipped with filing equipment for such records and protection must be provided to insure the preservation and privacy of the records kept. Fireproof vaults large enough to house the records in need of permanent preservation are provided in most schools as a part of the school structure. Records of a more or less temporary character require filing space but not necessarily vault protection.

A repository of records and reports is of little service either in preserving personal records of pupils or in research unless

the filing is systematically done and arranged for ready accessibility. This is accomplished through the use of appropriate filing equipment and clerical assistance. The importance of the service justifies the cost entailed.

6. *Office as an evaluating agency of educational progress.* The public that supports the school and whose children are its supposed beneficiaries should not be expected to take the results of education for granted. It has a right to know how its children are progressing and whether the services of the school are worth the cost. On this point serious conflict has arisen in recent years. Teachers have continuously requested increases in salaries, yet they have vigorously opposed the evaluation of their services. Perhaps the explanation of the opposition is lack of confidence in the ability either of boards of education or of school administrators to evaluate the quality of the teachers' services. On the contrary, board members have become increasingly insistent when granting salary requests that administrative officers reveal greater ingenuity in evaluating merit.

The issue created cannot be resolved without bringing the school principal and his teachers into the picture. Some record of the efficiency of the teacher is essential. It cannot be taken for granted; nor can it be entrusted to the unrecorded memory of those who would be called upon to give testimony when the merit of an individual teacher becomes a matter for discussion. Best practice indicates that the school principal should maintain a cumulative folder in the office for the filing of evidential material that throws light on the character of services rendered by the teacher. There is no disposition on the part of the authors to recommend a score card or evaluation sheet to record final judgments on the merit of teachers. Rather they advise that records of the work of the teacher be preserved in the folder for evaluation when judgments need to be made regarding the teacher's efficiency.

Any evaluation of a teacher should not be considered in the light of a final judgment on merit. It should be regarded both by the principal and by the teacher evaluated as an end point

in the growth and development of the teacher from which future progress can and should be measured. The evaluation should, of course, be considered with the teacher because it is done for the benefit of the teacher. If specific improvements are desired, the needs should be considered and efforts made to achieve the progress desired. Full co-operation should be given by the official doing the evaluating in helping the teacher to understand the nature of the progress expected and in providing the aids that the teacher needs.

The office record should be available for the teacher's inspection but otherwise considered confidential. The teacher should be privileged to provide evidential material for the record as well as the principal, although the responsibility for the interpretation of the record rests with the school principal. The record folder should contain memoranda on the requests of the teacher for assistance and the nature of the assistance given. Both objective and subjective evidence of the teacher's merit should be included in the file.

The modern school office must be equipped and prepared to participate with teachers in self-evaluation, to interpret educational status, and to give counsel in effecting the progress that the welfare of pupils requires. It must be organized to carry on the function of evaluation as a means of encouraging teacher growth and for such other purposes as the school system may prescribe.

7. *Office as a planning agency in school improvement.* As the responsible head of the school, the principal should enlist the assistance of his staff and community in the formulation of plans for school improvement. To accomplish this desired result, the office must provide the climate of a planning center. Ideas should be welcomed at this center and freedom of discussion encouraged. A conference table is a prerequisite to good planning and provisions must be made for groups to come together to consider the problems bearing on school improvements. In this, pupils may well have a role as well as teachers and parents, except that the problems for pupil consideration

must be within the interests and abilities of the pupil group. To illustrate, a school under a principal who had a fine conception of his office as a planning center had invited his teachers and parents to participate in the preparation of a periodic report card that would convey to parents a better impression of the progress being made by the pupils. From hearing teachers talk about the matter at school and from hearing the matter discussed by parents at home, some of the pupils became interested and turned in suggestions that they desired to offer to the school principal. The idea which evoked the most discussion from both teachers and parents was one turned in by a fourth grade boy who devised a self-rating card on which he could report his own growth in citizenship and conduct to his father. This idea greatly influenced the final report of the entire group.

The method of making participation in school administration and management effective is co-operative planning. The problem of merit evaluation considered in the foregoing section cannot be solved without co-operative planning by those to be evaluated and by those doing the evaluating. In a similar manner, the problems of curriculum development, instructional improvement, democratic administration, and the like cannot be solved without co-operative planning. Likewise the community problems that seriously affect the school are not likely to be solved by anyone's individual judgment or decree. The enlistment of the co-operative effort of all the personnel involved is the only known way to influence thinking decisively and to reach a sound consensus of opinion.

The school office that is properly organized as a planning center will have magnetic power in attracting fruitful ideas. It may also attract a few suggestions from cranks as did the suggestion box posted on the outer door of a city school superintendent that lured this suggestion: "Fire all the teachers and close up shop." Broadly speaking those who participate in the planning of enterprises will assume a greater responsibility for carrying them out.

Co-operative planning is the method of helping personnel to identify themselves with the enterprises with which they are associated. It diffuses responsibility without the formal delegation of authority. It will change the character of a school office very quickly if honestly undertaken and fairly carried on.

8. *Office as a resource center for encouraging creative work.* The great danger in most schools is that the work may become stereotyped. Nothing is more deadening to enthusiasm and high hopes than the daily grind. It is demoralizing to teachers and pupils alike.

The office is often blamed for this low level method of operation because of its insistence on strict adherence to schedule, its emphasis on red tape, and its routine requirements. The influence of office administration on the school may prove deadening in spite of its desire not to be so. In order to avoid this influence the office can set up a new objective, namely, that of encouraging creative work. It is a well-known fact that overemphasis on a low level objective soon produces diminishing return. For example, overemphasis on clerical processes in making reports may result in undue meticulousness and the expenditure of excessive time in the performance of clerical functions and the slighting of duties of far greater importance to the school. Because of overemphasis on promptness, exactness, and neatness in keeping records and in making reports, the school office may easily defeat its major purpose; that is, leadership in instructional improvement. An antidote for this tendency is the encouragement of creative work.

The encouragement of creative effort necessitates relief from the burden of routine. The mental attitude conducive to the one is entirely different from that of the other. One may perform routine tasks under pressure, but one cannot do creative work under such a condition. Favorable mood is essential to creative endeavor. This can be induced but not decreed. To induce it in teachers and pupils, school regimen must not be overstressed. Considerable freedom in planning should be al-

lowed, a relaxed school atmosphere should be created, and encouragement to experiment should be given.

Encouragement in creative art was given by a school principal through announcing that he had provided a picture frame for his office and that he would display in this frame each week the most original piece of creative drawing or painting done by a pupil of the school during the preceding week. The special teacher in art would make the selection, and every pupil in the school was eligible to compete. Other devices in other fields have been employed by school principals to encourage creativeness on the part of both teachers and pupils. The attitude of the one in the school office is a strong determiner of what teachers consider especially important. For that matter, too, it can be a powerful factor in influencing effort on the part of pupils.

Is creative effort by teachers and pupils desired in a school? If so, it must be nurtured and encouraged. By making the office a resource center in which such work is given the emphasis to which it is entitled, both teachers and pupils will be instructed and encouraged to break with deadly routine and to undertake new adventures in learning and teaching.

9. *Office as a co-ordinating agency in school and community relations.* The school is coming to be more and more a center in the life of the neighborhood or community served. It can have attracting power or repelling power, depending upon the way it is regarded by the community. One teacher can do a great deal to create favorable public opinion; another can alienate public opinion and create a serious problem in school and community relations. The office is the school center for the co-ordination of the relations of the school and community. The principal must strive to prevent his personnel—teachers, clerks, pupils, and janitor—from creating unfavorable impressions in the community and from giving offense to the public, which is encountered in different ways. He must also strive to acquaint the school personnel with the importance of being considerate and courteous in contacts with the public.

Instruction may have to be provided in practices to be cultivated and in practices to be avoided in meeting the public. A secretary, for example, may have to be instructed in the proper way to address callers in answering the telephone—to lower her voice, to conceal irritation, and to be patient with callers slow to understand. An information secretary who irritates callers can do irreparable harm to school and community relations. Likewise, the other personnel can create unfavorable or favorable public opinion by the way they act and speak in meeting the public.

The office as the clearing house of the school should set a fine example of the standards expected in the cultivation of wholesome school and community relations. It should also undertake to co-ordinate the efforts of all the personnel of the school to meet the public in a friendly and considerate manner.

10. Office as the center of an educational enterprise. A school is not a factory that produces automatons; it is an educational enterprise which seeks to develop responsible citizens. The center of this enterprise is the school office. The chief purpose of the office is the direction of the enterprise to the end that its objectives are realized. The school principal is the director of the enterprise and is responsible for what goes on in his plant. In small schools in which the principal may have to teach part time and operate his office without clerical assistance, many of the office services normally expected cannot be rendered. In large schools, the principal usually has clerical assistance and is relieved of teaching. Here all the services discussed in foregoing sections of this chapter can and should be provided. The character of the enterprise and its success should then be greatly influenced by the principal's conception of his duties and responsibilities.

If the principal functions in a democratic manner, the office will tend to become a converging point for both in-school and out-of-school personnel. If, on the contrary, he functions as an autocrat or a benevolent despot, the office will be visited chiefly by persons who are summoned or who come to curry

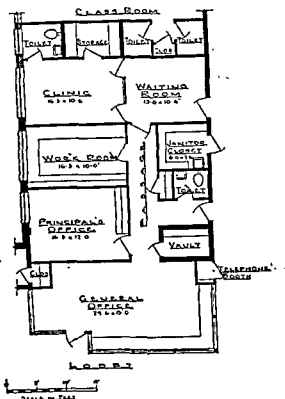


Fig 8. Office Suite of the East Side Grade School, Moline, Illinois.
(Reproduced through the courtesy of M. R. Beckstrom and the Board of Education.)

favor, and it will be a center from which orders are distributed. But regardless of the method of the principal, the office is and necessarily must be maintained as the service center of the educational enterprise.

The preparation of the principal for his duties and the general layout of the office should be determined largely by the functions of the enterprise. This cannot always be guaranteed because many principals are promoted teachers without training in administration and supervision and many offices have been improvised from waste space in outmoded buildings. The

director is always more important to the enterprise than the space in which its center is housed, yet both, as previously indicated, *exercise an important influence on the success or failure of the enterprise.*

In recent years, great progress has been made in the preparation of leaders for school enterprises and in the planning of functional layouts for school offices. As a result, office services have been greatly improved. It is now generally recognized that the head of the local school is a key person in the administration of city school systems. On the school principals, probably to a greater extent than on any other group of school personnel, depends the general character of the products of our great American educational enterprise.

THE OFFICE LAYOUT

The services discussed in the foregoing sections can be rendered most effectively if the office is planned to provide space which makes possible the carrying on of one or more of the services at the same time. Accordingly, the modern school office is designed as a service center. The floor plan of the office of the Washington Elementary School of Moline, Illinois, reveals the efforts of the architect to provide a functional layout of this school unit. This plan is typical of the office plans of many modern elementary schools.

SUMMARY

The conception of the elementary school office as a service center calls for a new type of office layout and a different type of principal from those found in traditional schools. A rapid development has taken place in recent years in the office plans of elementary schools as well as in the professional qualifications of principals. However, it does not require too much strain on the imagination to span the period between the first appearance of the office in elementary schools and the functional office layouts found in the new elementary school buildings today. Likewise the time span between the head teacher

stage of the elementary school principalship and that of the professionally trained supervising principal in modern city school systems includes only a few decades. Indeed many people still engaged in public education in urban school systems can easily remember the appearance of the different stages of development of the elementary school principalship.

The growth of the principalship is closely identified with the growth of cities. The increase in population of urban areas has made inevitable the growth in size of elementary schools. The enlargement of school buildings in turn has increased both the number and the complexity of administrative services that must be undertaken by school principals. This has made necessary a different type of housing for the administrative office.

School offices cannot be functionally designed unless the school architect understands the services that are expected to be carried on therein. The school principal and his staff must therefore be privileged to participate in the preparation of the specifications not only for the office layout but also for the whole school. The school must be more than a mere physical plant. It is an educational enterprise that requires functional housing. The housing can either facilitate the execution of the functions or it can serve as a handicap. For this reason it is essential that the services of the modern school that center in the administrative office be clearly understood when the layout of office space is planned. No architectural plan should be approved until the professional staff has been permitted to examine the plans, offer criticisms, and re-examine the revised plans in light of the suggestions offered.

The administrative office should be located in the school plant so that it is convenient of access to those who come to the building from outside and to those within the school who come to the office for services. The office must have sufficient space to enable the office personnel to carry on the services that they are expected to render. *Briefly stated, the office should serve as the communication center of the school; a clearing house for the transaction of school business; a counseling*

center for teachers, pupils, and parents; the research division of the school for the collection, analysis, and evaluation of activities and results; the repository of records; the planning center for solving school problems and for initiating school improvements and creative work; and as the co-ordinating center of the educational enterprise.

The office and its organization should not be made an end. It is only a means to the operation of an efficient school. *The school administrator should not allow himself to become so engrossed in office organization and routine that the major responsibilities to the school are neglected.* It is possible to maintain a showy office and little else. But in general a well-conceived office indicates a well-administered school. An efficiently organized office contributes greatly to the emancipation of the school administrator from petty details, frees the teachers from the needless interruptions that interfere with classroom work, and makes possible the rendering of the services essential to the school enterprise.

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Preparation for Educational Leadership

THE QUALITY OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION in every school system is determined very largely by the competence of its leadership. Competent leaders in a school system, however, are not produced by spontaneous generation. A few who have attained proficiency in leadership may appear to have done so because of their unusual personal endowments, but most are products of good preparation and sound experience.

In the conscious selection of personnel for leadership roles in school systems, careful consideration must be given to personal endowments as well as preparation and experience. It is especially important that such functionaries have the right conception of leadership as it should function in an institution in which the primary responsibility is the preparation of youth for citizenship in a democratic social order. Persons chosen for leadership roles should also be skilled in the techniques of exercising the leadership function. Even so, in-service growth after employment is an important factor in the production of effective leaders. School systems cannot rely on selection alone as the method of supplying their quotas of leaders.

MODERN CONCEPTION OF LEADERSHIP

The dictionary definition of the term *leader* is "one who goes before to guide or to show the way in some action, opinion, or movement." Implied in this definition is recognition and authority to precede or to direct those who are expected to serve as co-workers or collaborators. Leadership in democratic society is therefore the process through which a group is influenced or led by a leader to accept the role of collaborators in working for the realization of recognized goals. The success of the process is dependent on the leader; that is, the one who assumes the leadership and becomes the accepted leader of the group.

The phenomenon of leadership is dependent upon the individual dominance and group acquiescence. But this relationship is not that of dictator and subjects. The leader must be unselfish and sincerely interested in the welfare of those he undertakes to lead. On the other hand, the collaborators must be co-operative and responsive to the efforts of the leader. In brief, the control exercised by the leader should be with the consent of, through the co-operation of, and for the ultimate benefit of the collaborators.

The kind of leadership described operates as a two-way process. The leader influences his collaborators, and they in turn influence his views. The change in the views of the collaborators is generally a gradual process through which they come to accept the modified views of the leader. In the end they identify themselves with the leader, and in so doing they experience satisfaction vicariously from his experience. This is the basis of loyalty to the leader and the willingness of the collaborators to sacrifice for a common cause.

NATURE OF PREPARATION FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The leader of a school or school system who is chosen to furnish leadership in elementary education is generally selected by the chief school administrator with the advice of his associates and the approval of the board of education. If this procedure is followed, the members of the school staff who will

function as collaborators with the leader should have participated in the process of selection. Implicit in the choice is fitness for the role of leadership. Usually most leaders have to pass through a period of growth and development, as previously implied, regardless of the preparation for leadership that they may have received.

It would be unwise to select personnel for leadership in elementary education without full consideration of their preparation for the functions they are expected to perform. These functions according to Pigors¹ are initiation, administration, and interpretation.

The leader who is afraid to venture beyond the beaten trail of experience fails in the first of these functions of leadership. To lead, he must initiate new ideas. It is, of course, better that these ideas be originated and projected as problems for the consideration of collaborators with the leader than as copyrighted thoughts of the leader to be accepted without question or modification. By the method indicated, growth is induced, and the collaborators tend to identify themselves with the leader's ideas.

The act of facilitating the growth of collaborators through the solving of problems is administration. This is an almost exclusive service of leadership. Evidently, the service cannot be rendered by a novice. It involves knowledge of the ends to be attained through the solving of problems essential to the welfare of the collaborators and of the means by which the ends can be realized most effectively.

Preparation for the exercise of the function of leadership cannot be accomplished merely through courses in leadership technology. If so, the professor of education who accumulated the largest bag of tricks and the longest lists of gadgets used by leaders would be of greatest service in preparing his students for the responsibilities of leadership. But the retailing of administrative tricks, devices, and gadgets is not considered

¹ Paul Pigors, *Leadership or Domination* (Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935).

respectable training. Successful preparation requires sound general and professional education. The worth of such preparation cannot be equated in terms of the number of courses taken in institutions of higher learning or of the combinations of letters in the degrees either earned or unearned. It does consist in the development of the understandings and insights of the goals of education, the processes by which education is acquired, and the means that can be utilized in securing the greatest effort and most loyal support of the personnel employed in the educational enterprise.

Although no teacher of school administration can personally educate a student for leadership, the good teacher can facilitate the growth of the student and condition him for the responsibilities of leadership. This service is similar to that which the leader must render to his followers through efficient leadership.

The function of interpretation is a unique responsibility of leadership. Winning and holding followers will depend very largely on the power of the leader to interpret his philosophy of education and the policies of the school system. The collaborators, however literate the individuals may be, always require a spokesman who is able to interpret their thoughts and give effective expression to them. The retention of a role of leadership with a group or groups by a leader depends very largely upon his skill in interpretation.

DESIRABLE CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERS

There are, of course, personal characteristics that appear to be essential to successful leadership. In the conference of teachers of school administration held at Endicott, New York, in 1947, ten such characteristics² were proposed as desirable. They were (1) abiding faith in, and conviction of, the importance of education in a democratic society by the leader; (2) superior intellectual capacity; (3) high degree of social intelligence; (4) initiative, resourcefulness, and inventiveness;

² *Developing Leaders for Education: A Report of a Work-Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Endicott, New York, 1947, p. 37.*

(5) co-operative attitude—a desire to develop power in others rather than to exercise power over them; (6) personal attractiveness; (7) drive—the ability to work hard persistently toward desirable objectives; (8) physical and mental health—vigor, stamina, and emotional stability; (9) high moral character and personal integrity; and (10) sound judgment and common sense. Although all these characteristics are worthy of extended discussion, only a few will be considered as generally recognized prerequisites of efficient leadership in elementary education.

Ability to get along with people, to meet them pleasantly, and to inspire loyalty are indispensable characteristics that the individual who assumes leadership responsibility must possess. An individual who is endowed with an objective personality, that is, the qualities of a natural group worker, is greatly to be preferred to the individual with a subjective personality who has the qualities of a lone worker for positions involving responsibilities of leadership. The objective type is inclined to be co-operative, democratic, friendly, kindly, and considerate; the subjective type is often un-co-operative, dictatorial, unfriendly, irascible, and contemptuous. Persons of the objective type are happiest and most efficient in working with people; those of the subjective type are happiest when working alone. If workers of the subjective type are unable to function democratically in leadership relationships, they tend to become irritable and to create friction—conditions that make for low morale.

The subjective type of individual may find it extremely difficult to develop the personal qualities essential to successful leadership. One thing about which we can be certain is that the objective type possesses a great advantage in positions of leadership. However, he should not rely solely on his natural advantages, but should seek to cultivate understanding of and skill in the characteristics that are regarded as essential to the efficient exercise of *leadership responsibility*.

For a leader to succeed he should possess at least average

mental ability—better than average is preferred. He should also be able to use his ability effectively. The nature of the leadership responsibility is such that at times it makes heavy demands. The solution to the problems that will confront a leader cannot be found in patterns of experience that can be recalled as ready-made answers. Of course, general principles reached through analysis and synthesis of experience are important, but they are serviceable only after the bearing they have on a problem is comprehended and the implications are foreseen.

This characteristic cannot be measured solely by an individual's academic history, yet a record dominated by low marks with no work rated as good or superior is adequate reason for questioning the aptitude of the individual for the assumption of leadership responsibility. Because, as previously pointed out, a school leader is frequently called upon to prepare and to interpret reports and to address groups on issues of tremendous importance to his school and community, something more than mediocre skill is required. The power to think clearly in the major fields of knowledge and to think deeply in the organization and management of personnel is required of all who expect to be accepted as intellectual leaders by their associates. The individual who would function effectively in the capacities indicated must also be able to express his ideas clearly and forcibly in conversation and in public address. Weakness in the latter ability should be overcome through special effort and training.

Finally, the school leader must be controlled in his practices by an unselfish motivation. This characteristic will be quickly recognized by those with whom he deals, and it will act as a powerful force in influencing the responses to his leadership.

Whether it is possible for a person with selfish purposes to change his motivation and become unselfish is a matter of considerable doubt. Whatever the answer, it is certain that a person engaged in school administration cannot look forward to a successful career as a leader unless he is willing to place

"service before self" as a principle of control in his philosophy of life.

THE REAL ROLE OF LEADERSHIP

The test of leadership ability is the effect the leader has on those who serve under his direction. No matter what his personal characteristics are, he will not be successful unless he is able to inspire his associates and collaborators with the desire to work co-operatively for the goals for which the school stands. He will be judged by his ability to enlist and to utilize their abilities in participating in the solution of school problems and in formulating educational policies that have the common objective of advancing the welfare of the children enrolled in the school.

The role of the leader is to spearhead a mass attack on the improvement of teaching and learning. This cannot be accomplished merely by the exercise of a powerful leadership psychology that tends to hypnotize the collaborators into docile followers. It is accomplished only through the democratic process of freedom of participation and reciprocal co-operation. The leader of the team must be able to release the powers of the members in a co-operative attack on the problems of the school in need of solution. His success is explained not on the ground of his possession of unique personal powers, but by the fact that he knows his collaborators and through his understanding of their abilities and needs he is able to utilize them co-operatively in the interpretation of their possibilities for services to the school.

IMPEDIMENTS TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEADERSHIP

The development of leadership on the part of employed personnel in a school system is retarded by the existence of a climate unfavorable to the production of leaders. Such a climate is usually found in school systems with a long history of *autocratic control*. The transition from this type of control to one of the truly democratic type is not always easy to effect. The

members of the staff may assume an apathetic attitude toward the assumption of responsibilities in sharing the labors of democratic control. They may even assume that leadership is evading its responsibilities when it invites co-operation and participation in the formulation of policies and in the solution of school problems. Furthermore, they may regard with suspicion the efforts of persons in established leadership positions to effect changes in the climate that has become established as a tradition.

Because of these impediments, individuals in such school systems who are clothed with the responsibilities of leadership may have to move cautiously in attempting to create conditions conducive to the development of democratic leaders. The approach may have to be made through the invitation to participate in the solution of problems involving personal welfare, such as the improvement of salaries, regulations affecting absence on account of illness, and the like. The appointment or election to committees to work on school problems may be regarded with disfavor and even resented until the motives of such action are clearly understood, and the benefits of co-operation and participation are realized.

Probably the greatest impediment to the preparation of personnel for democratic leadership in a school system is the traditional attitude of the board of education. All too many board members have little understanding and even less appreciation of the responsibilities of the school for creating a democratic school environment for children and youth in preparing them for life in democratic society. The members fail to realize that patriotic citizens cannot be produced merely by classroom injunctions on civic virtues and by board regulations and decrees. The methods of management from the top down establish the school climate that will fix the school practices of leaders, teachers, and pupils. The kind of school and classroom laboratory the board imposes will be the laboratory that will determine the kind of citizens the schools will produce. Neither teachers nor pupils can be expected to develop aptitudes for

democratic processes if habituated to the methods of autocracy. An anomalous condition is thus all too frequently created in which the practices of the school conflict with its generally accepted objectives.

It is the task of the professional leaders to eliminate the impediments to the preparation of teachers and pupils for roles of leadership in education and in the pursuits of life. This cannot be accomplished without adult education because board members and teachers must be changed as well as pupils. However, the task presents a challenge and a problem that can be met and solved only through the preparation of better leaders.

The magnitude of the impediments to leadership vary from school to school and from time to time. A person who has succeeded admirably in establishing his leadership may find it quickly challenged by a change in the administration of the school system. This is one of the hazards in school administration that results from the lack of legal requirements for membership on boards of education and from the broad discretionary powers granted by state legislatures to local boards.

Unfortunately, there are no specifics for the elimination of the impediments to safe and efficient administrative leadership. The impediments are probably inherent in our system of control of public education. To overcome them requires all the *intelligence and skill that the leader can command in the exercise of his leadership responsibilities.*

PERSONNEL EXPECTED TO EXERCISE LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

In small and moderate-sized school systems, leadership in elementary education generally rests with a supervisor of elementary education and the school principal. Two types of practice are here found. One, the supervisor of elementary education works directly with the staff of teachers in relation to instruction, the principal either serving as head teacher and building administrator or as the *general manager of school*

personnel and properties. Two, the supervisor functions as a co-ordinator of the principals, who in turn function as the responsible heads of their schools. The principal of a school is the leader of a staff of teachers and is responsible for enlisting their collaboration in achieving unity of purpose in elementary education.

In large school systems the top leader in elementary education is usually an assistant superintendent who may have district superintendents serving as intermediary leaders in charge of a number of schools. The district superintendent holds his principals responsible for effecting co-ordination within their schools and for enlisting the co-operation of their staff members in carrying out the policies of elementary education for the school system. Special supervisors serve as assistants to the district superintendent and principals.

The majority of the larger school systems do not employ district superintendents. Instead, the assistant superintendent serves as the co-ordinator of the principals and holds them responsible for leadership within their schools. Special supervisors are used as assistants to the assistant superintendent and the principals.

Regardless of size of school system and of plan of organization, the school principal is an important functionary in elementary education. Without his leadership, elementary education in urban communities would suffer from inco-ordination and indirection. Because of this, the preparation of the school principal for leadership has become a major problem in school administration.

Leadership in elementary education today rests very largely on the school principal. The fitness of this functionary for leadership responsibilities has undergone a great development in recent years. The elementary school principal of a generation ago received his training chiefly through some kind of apprenticeship service. He acquired experience first as a classroom teacher, second as a minor subordinate officer, and third as the principal of a small school. The person who survived these ex-

periences without loss of community standing might eventually look forward to promotion to a larger principalship.

The practices acquired by principals in the apprenticeship period have no doubt been colored by the point of view of the teacher, because the principal at first was primarily a head teacher and secondarily an educational leader. Furthermore, many of the practices were developed through trial-and-error experiences. A new problem was encountered, and the principal met it as best he could; sometimes his procedure worked, and accordingly it was incorporated in his repertory of practices. Very few principles of leadership were developed as a result of a conscious attempt to apply knowledge and theory to his problems. *School principals trained only through experience have been slow to sense the need for readjustments occasioned by the rapid growth of schools and changes in the social conditions and the economic conditions of community life. As a result, many elementary schools have been administered only by principals saturated with the inbred ideas of local experience. Such principals, not being sentient of the conditions of growth within the system, have often failed to understand the necessity for changes within the schools, and have entered into conflict with impending changes and offered resistance to the inevitable in education. Some principals have grown with their positions, some have been demoted, and others have managed to remain, stranded in schools that have offered no professional future, pathetic reminders of an outworn stage in the development of the elementary school principalship. The successful principals are those who studied elementary education, made the readjustments that changing conditions required, regulated their practices by sound theory, and utilized new knowledge acquired in academic fields, such as education, psychology, sociology, political science, and economics.*

Studies of elementary school principals show that teaching experience is considered essential in their professional preparation and that teaching experience even after assuming the

principalship is frequently regarded as valuable for professional development.

Experience as training for leadership. Status studies of elementary school principals indicate that superior preparation diminishes the length of the teaching apprenticeship period considered essential to the attainment of the principalship and increases the expectancy of securing an appointment to a principalship. However, actual experience as an assistant principal or as principal of a small school is regarded as good preparation for the principalship of a large school. Such experience will help a principal to understand the numerous demands that will be made upon him by pupils, teachers, and the community. His ability as a leader will be frequently challenged. If through previous experience he is thereby better enabled to anticipate the major demands that are likely to be made upon him and is better prepared to meet them as they arise, his prospects of success are greatly increased. Obviously he must also be able to meet minor demands of an executive nature with wisdom, because there are a number of such demands that must be met on the instant. If the principal has not developed the trait of character that enables him to make decisions quickly and correctly, he may find himself greatly embarrassed in the principalship. Professional experience should be helpful to him in making decisions quickly with respect to both major and minor demands. A person without any experience in administration may be able to make correct decisions based on intuitions and guesses, but it is not wise for a principal to rely on his sense of intuition or to assume that he is a born leader, merely because he has made a few lucky decisions. Training acquired through experience will provide the basis for administrative decisions and will eliminate many of the chance factors. Although professional training will aid the principal in the development of a comprehensive theory of leadership, it will not supply him with specific knowledge and understanding of institutions, ideals, and forces that will be encountered in school and community life apart from the conventional work

of the school. Social forces in the community demand special insight and ability, and the principal must equip himself with supplementary training in many fields to meet successfully the many problems that the forces present.

General and special professional preparation. The school teacher of today cannot hope to secure an appointment to a principalship without extensive professional preparation. In the better positions, the master's degree in education is required with special preparation in school administration. Large cities generally require a written examination in the field of elementary education and a supplementary oral examination to ascertain the personal fitness of the candidate for leadership responsibilities.

A good general education is basic to professional study leading to the elementary school principalship. Although much value may be received by persons preparing for the elementary school principalship from courses in education of a general character, still specific training is both desirable and necessary. Broad general courses in administration should precede the courses that offer specific training. Both types of training are essential, and neither is adequate without the other.

If the present offerings of institutions presuming to provide professional training for the elementary school principalship are an index of the conceptions of training considered necessary by these institutions, the offerings are conspicuously inadequate. The elementary school principalship, to provide a career in administration, requires the setting up of professional courses that will train candidates specifically for elementary school leadership. It is true that a principal may advance professionally from one position in administration in a school system to another, but the fact remains that his training should be specifically pointed for some particular administrative position. The appointment departments of schools of education report that frequent requests are received from superintendents asking for trained elementary school principals. These requests further specify that a person who has served as a high school

principal or a superintendent but has had little experience as an elementary school principal is not wanted; that the candidate recommended must be one whose professional goal is the elementary school principalship and whose course of professional training has been specifically designed to equip him with the knowledge necessary to solve the problems of the latter position. Some institutions award a certificate in connection with the master's degree that specifies that the candidate is prepared for the elementary school principalship.

If specific training for the elementary school principalship is offered, then specific training can be required. Progressive school systems will demand special training of persons aspiring to fill the elementary school principalship. A certificate of such training might become the prerequisite of appointment. This should result in the gradual elimination of untrained candidates and the establishment of the elementary school principalship on a professional basis. The principal may acquire a comprehensive knowledge of administration through his own professional reading and study, but courses in education serve to focus his reading on definite problems. The discussion of the class in education serves to give new and varied points of view on problems that the lone worker in professional development may miss. If the principal maps out for himself a moderate, well-balanced program of courses in education, some to be taken during summer vacations and some on Saturdays or after school, he assures himself a sustained systematic drive for professional growth, whereas the average principal, working alone, will probably carry on his program spasmodically. He will miss both the guidance of the trained student of problems in education and the *inspiration and support that comes from association with his fellow-workers in the class*. The principal who establishes contacts with research workers and who keeps himself in touch, through courses in education, with the latest developments in educational research, is better able to sense the problems that merit study in his own school than the principal who works alone. In the solution of his problem he

will have at his disposal the best scientific knowledge in the field and his attack on the problems can be made as a result with greater confidence and a better utilization of time and effort.

Professional schools of education in leading universities usually offer a sufficient number of courses to provide a program of professional training for the ambitious elementary school principal, if he will but take the pains to select his courses with the idea of receiving training that will enable him to meet the specific administrative demands of his position. The deans of professional schools as a rule will give counsel to the student in the planning of a sequence of courses leading to a graduate degree or to professional proficiency in a given field. The bulletins of information usually contain descriptive statements of professional courses and sometimes statements regarding sequences, that are of value to an individual in planning a program of professional study. An excellent analysis of the needs of elementary school principals and the course offerings thought to be of value in preparing principals to meet the demands that will be made upon them and the functional nature of these professional demands is indicated in Table V.

For instance, in virtually every school the principal is certain to encounter problems pertaining to the maladjustment of pupils. Conditions of social maladjustment will be found that exercise causative influences on the work of the school as a whole. This may be the direct result of industrial conditions, environmental factors, or the traditions of the community. Unless the principal is equipped to think in terms of the factors which cause the problems, he will have a very poor conception of the responsibilities of the principalship in his school. Crime, poverty, disease, and other forms of social pathology in a community may affect seriously the home life and out-of-school life of pupils and their progress in school. Problems of failure, retardation, and elimination with attendant waste for individuals, complications for the community,

TABLE V

Nature of Professional Demands Made on Elementary School Principals and Number of Courses in Education Offered in Department of Education of a Large Private University Designed to Meet the Demands

Nature of Demands	Numbers of Courses
General overview of fields	3
An understanding of psychological problems	3
Directing teaching methods	2
Organizing curricula	2
Organizing and administering teaching staff	1
Supervising teaching staff	3
Teaching and supervising special subjects	4
Directing health agencies	1
Guidance, case study, and personnel work	1
Measuring abilities and achievements	4
Statistical treatment of facts	1
Unified view of professional duties	2
Knowledge of specialized duties	4

and loss of morale for the school may be caused in part by social conditions in the school community. Although it is probably true that the principal single-handed cannot do much to overcome the handicaps of an area having such conditions, nevertheless it is certain that little can be expected from a principal who is blind to the social factors involved in a complex situation of the type described. Training in educational sociology would at least make him aware of the forces operating and enable him to find the causative factors and to outline a constructive program for school and community designed to result in improvement. Knowledge of such forces should facilitate real leadership on the part of the principal. The principal who has no adequate conception of the problems that cause maladjustment in his school may go on year after year and find himself helpless in removing causes and improving conditions.

In the case of maladjusted individual pupils, the principal should be able to assist in the diagnosis of the social influences that bear on the problem, interpret their potency, and advise

regarding the treatment that the individual should receive. If lack of time prevents the principal from attending to such details personally, his knowledge and understanding of the facts should enable him to secure the assistance needed through the proper organization of his staff. The principal who has received training in the directions indicated should be able to organize his staff as a unit for a unified attack on the problems. The principal who does not understand such problems is forced to adopt a policy of *laissez faire*.

The principal should also possess a broad understanding of economic institutions, American ideals, and the problems of community life. For these understandings he will need to study the related academic fields of economics, political science, social science, social psychology, philosophy, and sociology. Here the principal should acquire training that will prepare him to meet specific administrative demands. The principal of an elementary school should also acquire mastery of two or three special subject-matter fields such as reading, writing, and spelling. This does not imply that the principal should be a master speller, master writer, or master reader, but that he should know the latest development in the teaching of these subjects and the standards of attainment at different grade levels. It is not necessary for him to have specialized in the subjects but rather to have acquired extensive special knowledge concerning them. The principal should be able to sit in conference with his teachers and give them guidance on the teaching of reading, if that is the subject in which he has acquired special mastery. The elementary school principal should be so well prepared in reading that he can guide and direct his teachers, and, if the occasion arises, go into the classrooms and carry on the work at any stage of its progress.

In-service improvement of principals. The principalship is a developing position. However adequate the preparation of a principal, he will still find improvement necessary after his employment as a principal. New problems will continually arise that can be solved only through consultation and study.

The recognition of this need has led to the establishment of professional associations on the national and state levels and on local levels in large school systems. In some sections of the United States regional associations have been established to encourage in-service growth and development. Membership in such associations is one way of *facilitating in-service improvement*. Common problems are identified and solutions are sought through co-operative study and research. Furthermore, easy communication is established between members with resulting benefits from the exchange and discussion of views.

In city school systems, periodic meetings of principals with district or assistant superintendents of schools and the superintendent are held to consider problems of importance to the schools. Because these meetings usually have for their major purpose the in-service improvement of the group, participation is generally found to be very beneficial to the individual members.

Systematic professional reading is also an effective method of in-service improvement. The incentive for engaging in such reading is provided by the responsibilities of leadership for the staff of collaborators with whom the principal works. Many school systems provide a budget item for the purchase of professional books and magazines for the use of principals and their staffs against which requisitions can be drawn for the acquisition of materials considered essential in in-service improvement. The possession of a professional library by a school is not *prima facie* evidence that it will be effectively used. The leader must keep himself so well informed that he can refer his collaborators to materials bearing specifically on the problems that confront them as individuals. The evidence indicates that the expenditure of public money for professional libraries is a good investment.

The practice of constantly surveying and appraising one's own work should be cultivated by the principal. General work such as the principalship requires is likely to become conducive to inefficiency unless the work is constantly studied. The larger

opportunities for work must be sensed, or time may be wasted on trivial matters. The ability to see things clearly in true relationship makes for clearness of perspective.

Self-criticism, job analysis, and self-surveys are all essential to the professional growth and development of the principal. The principal should be his own most persistent critic. By analyzing his job and surveying himself in his position, the principal will acquire the perspective that will enable him to evaluate truly what he is actually accomplishing in his school. Frequent appraisal of one's work is one of the basic factors in a program of improvement.

One of the most effective means of preventing stagnation and demoralization in professional work is to become expert in some particular phase of the work. General work makes for stagnation and general demoralization; becoming an expert in some phase—if only a minor phase—is the most effective preventive measure in averting the demoralizing effects of general work. The success in some phase of professional work benefits the principal introspectively, stimulates and enlivens his zeal, and also brings him recognition as an expert by his fellow-workers.

There are innumerable fields in which the principal can learn to work more effectively than someone else. He may become expert in personnel work, in school records, in community leadership, in curriculum work, or in educational experimentation. A well-planned investigation to secure factual evidence with respect to some problem in the elementary school each year will prevent the principal from deteriorating in his general work. The principal must avoid becoming set with respect to his educational opinions. If he makes his school a laboratory for testing out significant theories of education and administration, professional growth and recognition are certain to result.

The principal should not be unduly conservative with respect to new movements in education nor should he be quick in adopting fads. Current movements in the profession should

claim some of his time in order that he may guide his teachers properly in the light of the findings of research. The principal should not throw open his school to pseudo-research by classroom teachers who have become inoculated with the doctrines of educational cults or who try to pose as followers of some self-styled prophet in modern education. His responsibility is to protect his school from educational folly, but in so doing he must not close his avenues of information to the findings of bona-fide research and must not resist the application in his school of tested theory and practice.

New movements in education, such as preschool education, character training, parent education, mental hygiene, and education for leisure, should be discussed with other principals and with the teachers. Committees of teachers may be appointed to assemble information and to present it for discussion at faculty meetings. By meeting the problem of new movements in education with the spirit of inquiry, investigation, and study, the dangers of both ultra-conservatism and faddism are avoided by the principal and his staff.

Some contend that the principal cannot, in justice to his administrative duties, carry on effective research work in public schools; that he will be led into misdirecting the attention and efforts of his staff; and finally, that the atmosphere of an elementary school with its varied activities and busy teachers is not conducive to the conduct of research and consequently it should be left for laboratory schools and university professors. Others, however, believe that research is most valuable when carried out in the practical situation afforded by a public elementary school; that results which are obtained will be more significant and workable; and that progressive public school workers, being close to practical situations, are in a better position to carry on research investigations than the workers who are removed from the field, or who are in schools where special conditions prevail. Still others maintain that the principal should not attempt to do research himself, but should

test the results of research carried out in experimental laboratories or schools of education.

The proper course for the principal undoubtedly lies between the extremes of the foregoing views. The principal, it is true, is primarily an administrator or director, and the major portion of his time should be occupied with duties of this character. On the other hand, he must be in touch with the latest developments of research in his field, and one of the most effective means of keeping this contact is for him to be engaged in a moderate amount of research himself. Furthermore, the mental attitude engendered by research makes the principal alert in sensing problems, a quality of great importance to the efficient administrator. The example of the principal is also a large factor in the professional alertness of his corps; if he desires to have teachers keenly alive to their surroundings and able to sense professional problems, a moderate amount of practical investigation is almost indispensable. It may be stated, therefore, that the principal, in order to keep in touch with the latest developments in the field of education, *to maintain an attitude of alertness in sensing administrative problems*, and to develop the scientific attitude in his staff and fellow-workers, should engage in those types of research that can be carried on in public schools without disadvantage to pupils and teachers.

The program of in-service professional improvement must be personal in character, that is, imposed on the principal by himself. The superintendent of a city system cannot impose an effective program of personal improvement on the elementary principals of his city. The program of improvement must be personal to each individual principal, taking root in and growing from his own professional ideals. It must be based on an earnest personal desire of the individual principal to grow. Whether motivated by ambition for a professional career or stimulated by the desire merely to better the character of his services, the program of professional improvement must be *personally conceived and developed*.

SUMMARY

Professional leadership in elementary schools cannot be entrusted to chance. *The policy of a school system should be to select the best prepared candidates available for positions of leadership.* These functionaries, whether developed from within the school system or selected from without, must be willing to undergo continuous growth and development in the processes of leadership.

In improving personnel in leadership positions, much depends on the conception of leadership that prevails in the school system. If the system desires merely intermediary officers who are efficient in carrying out instructions emanating from top executives, the task of training is not too great. But if the system wants its leaders to develop collaborators who are willing to share responsibilities with leaders and to participate co-operatively in the development of policies and in the solution of school problems, in-service preparation must be conceived as a continuous, progressing task.

Leadership as the process of developing collaborators through the solving of school problems is the concept generally accepted although not always successfully applied in administrative practice. The failure to synchronize the theory and practice of leadership may be caused by the absence of characteristics essential in persons clothed with leadership responsibilities or by the existence of conditions within a school system, an individual school, or a community that produce a climate unfavorable to democratic leadership.

Because leadership in elementary education is generally found to rest heavily on the school principal, it is important that a person seeking a career in this field acquire a broad general education that will fit him for successful teaching. Special training is also required to enable him to meet the demands made by changing social and economic conditions. Additional professional preparation is required if the principal is to cope efficiently with the specific problems of school and community life.

No principal can expect to provide the leadership that is expected today unless he is a thorough student of modern elementary education and its problems. The means by which he can keep himself up-to-date are wide and intensive professional reading, professional associations, school visitation, and the cultivation of a scientific attitude toward education. The person holding a position as the principal of an elementary school should lay out for himself a personal program of professional improvement that involves the budgeting of his working and leisure time to the end that he may read extensively and acquaint himself with the findings of research in his field. He must find time for the analytical study of his duties and responsibilities and for the appraisal of the work and activities of his school. On the basis of a broad knowledge of his problems, he can enlist the co-operation of his staff of collaborators in solving these problems. He must also find time to develop intensively some special interest in administration as an antidote to the demoralizing effects of general work.

If his program of professional growth is self-imposed, whether the motivation is professional ambition or solely the desire to have his school benefit from his labors, real professional growth will result. To persons with such ideals, the elementary school principalship offers opportunities for leadership unexcelled in education.

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Leadership in the Elementary School

THE GREATEST TEST OF ADMINISTRATIVE EFFECTIVENESS that the principal of an elementary school faces is leadership of his teaching staff. If he achieves success in this aspect of his responsibilities, he will have a successful educational program, with satisfied parents, pupils, and lay community members. He will have laid the keystone not only to recognized leadership in the school, but to success in educational leadership in the community as well.

CHANGING CONCEPTIONS OF STAFF LEADERSHIP

Standards for success in management and direction of the teaching staff of an individual school have undergone marked changes over the years. These standards or criteria had their beginning with the stage wherein the principal was merely the "principal teacher," with responsibilities for administration confined to seeing that the teachers performed simple routine duties. The standards advanced through such stages as those in which the principal "knew what all teachers of the school were doing at any given time," used the procedure of "casting a genial influence over the school" as his chief administrative

forte, depended on results of intelligence and standardized tests as his mainstay in directing and evaluating teacher effort, up to the modern conception of co-operative, democratic staff leadership.

Although the idea of democratic leadership is accepted widely as the ideal of school administration today, there are widely divergent, and often confused, theories and practices connected with establishing and maintaining it in a school staff. The purpose of the present chapter is to consider principles and practices through which principal and teachers may work together harmoniously and effectively in the great co-operative enterprise that the elementary school rightfully should be.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP

Many of the problems that principal and teachers encounter in achieving co-operative relations center about the very human urge for control. This urge for power may be either conscious or hidden. The teacher may feel insecure about her independence of action, may worry about what she conceives as undue dominance of the principal. The principal may at the same time be seriously concerned about loss of what he feels, and even believes teachers feel, is due authority over the action of members of his staff. There may be mutual concern about how much authority is being exercised and by whom it is exercised.

Educational principles as basis for authority. The principal should early develop an understanding in the staff that orientation in basic principles is essential to planning and carrying on an effective program of elementary education. Whether the embodiment of these principles is designed as "philosophy of education" or as "educational science" is not so important as that the principles be arrived at and stated co-operatively by the members of the staff. The study involved in formulating a statement of principles provides, in itself, impersonal and purposeful material for democratic staff action.

Closely connected with the statement of principles and fully

as significant, is the understanding that must be developed regarding ways to use principles in solving educational problems and guiding educational action. When the principal or teacher faces a problem, the attempt should not be made to solve the problem by using a procedure found successful in a similar situation, but by finding the principle that applies to the situation and framing a solution that accords with the principle. For example, a social-studies teacher in the upper grades is criticized for expressing views on a number of occasions that appear biased or extremely radical. The principle to be applied is that the findings on the topics should be arrived at co-operatively by the class as a whole, with the teacher acting as moderator of class discussion. The teacher is thus led to replace lectures based on her own views by democratic co-operative class procedures. Again, a paper-conservation drive is criticized as taking pupils from class and extra-school pursuits. The principle is that this activity should be related to social-studies class work. Accordingly, the salvaging of old newspapers is placed under the direction of social-studies teachers, who make it a topic of classroom study and give recognition to pupils for their conservation work in collecting and disposing of the papers to the appropriate agency.

Educational program determines administrative procedures. The most important outcome of making educational principles the directing authority is that administration, instead of determining what the curriculum will be, becomes the servant of the curriculum. A frequent cause of friction between principal and teachers is that the latter feel that they should have a larger share in administration. They should be led by the principal and their own study to understand that instruction of pupils is much more important than, and in reality controls, administration.

All administration beyond that performed by the teacher in connection with instruction, including the work of the principal, of supervisors, and of the superintendent—all the administrative machinery of the school system's hierarchy—is

justified only to the extent that it serves the teacher and pupil in the processes of teaching and learning. When teachers are led to grasp this principle, they become less concerned about whether they or the principal plans or performs the necessary administrative measures. They see that through sharing in the planning and carrying-out of the educational program, they are also sharing in the most effective way of determining what the administrative policies and procedures are to be.

Teachers may feel that improvement of instruction may determine administrative practices that serve the educational program, but that it will not be influential in shaping administration of other areas, of which teacher welfare might be an example. Nevertheless, what is done to improve the learning program for pupils will likewise improve conditions for teachers. One of the authors, in making a study of secondary education in England, noted that one of the most powerful teacher unions made little mention of improvement of conditions for teachers. When he inquired regarding this seeming omission, he was told by one of the union's officials that the organization made all efforts for educational improvement in the name of the pupils on the basis that what was done to improve situations for pupils invariably benefited teachers also—that their mutual interests were inseparable.

Human relationships essential to democratic leadership. The principle of practicing humanized, kindly relationships with teachers is basic to the principal's success as a leader of his staff. This means the sharing of opportunity and of rewards, as well as sharing of duties and responsibilities. It involves treating all alike, with none regarded either as favorites or as undesirables. In essence, it means recognition that the teaching staff, like the world outside, is made up of many kinds of personalities, with varied types of backgrounds and temperaments. To show patience, forbearance, and kindness that is removed from sentimentality to those who sincerely oppose, as well as those who ardently support, his own views and actions—this is

the type of human relations that the principal who is to be an effective leader must practice.

Democratic ways are the most effective ways. An important factor in developing teacher understanding of, and intelligent participation in, democratic procedures is the realization that these are far more effective than authoritarian ways. Co-operative, democratic procedure does not mean lack of organization, with everyone participating in every decision. It involves all the effective measures that principal and teachers co-operatively, with the study of established democratic principles and practices, decide will be most effective for their situation, whatever form their findings may take. Democratic practice involves organized effort and may include written regulations, appointive as well as elective procedure, and discipline that is intelligently observed rather than followed because of fear. It involves responsibility of a high order, because it is shared by all individual members of the staff, rather than centered in one member.

Teachers then are led to understand that democratic procedure is not accorded them as a favor at the hands of the principal. The principal will use co-operative methods because the school thus profits by the combined thinking and planning of the individual teachers, as well as by their more intelligent and willing carrying out of plans in which they have shared. They come to see that democratic procedure is used because of its superiority over authoritarianism in determining the educational program and its supporting administrative measures.

PRINCIPAL MUST VISUALIZE AND TRAIN SELF FOR DYNAMIC LEADERSHIP

If the principal of an elementary school is to lead his staff democratically and yet effectively in performing superior educational service for pupils and parents, he must not only possess essential personal qualities, but develop the professional attitudes and abilities that the importance of his position demands. This means that he must have the vision to see the potential-

ties of the elementary school as a social institution and the will to train himself to meet the challenge to leadership that confronts him as its director.

Principal's preparation in educational administration. Although the principal needs a background of experience in classroom teaching and comprehensive preservice study of curriculum, methods, and guidance, he should early in his career acquire an abundance of specialized training in principles and practice of educational administration. He must sense the potentialities of the elementary school principalship as a career. He must take the professional courses that will shape his conceptions and develop his abilities to encompass an educational program in its full scope and continuity. More than that, he must pursue his studies until he has developed the professional techniques necessary for dealing with the important elements of educational administration and utilizing them to lead teachers, pupils, and community members in a successful educational enterprise.

Development in personnel management. The modern principal, knowing that the area of teacher personnel holds both the most serious source of problems and at the same time the most challenging potentialities for successful administration of the school, avails himself both of specific courses in personnel management and the plentiful sources for continuing in-service development in direction of school personnel. In the former, he should become acquainted with the abundance of material developed in the fields of industrial and business management including the findings of psychological studies; in the latter, he should utilize the numerous data uncovered in studies of the elementary principal¹ and the elementary school teacher.

Facility with techniques of functional research. The principal, to lead his faculty in a program wherein educational science or philosophy is to be the directing authority, must not only be able to use the results of published research, but also

¹ Paul R. Pierce, *Origin and Development of the Public School Principalship* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935).

be able to guide teachers to conduct simple types of research that will assist in solving problems encountered in the regular work. To this end, the principal must not only take professional courses in testing, surveys, and statistics, but he must also keep in touch with, and bring within reach of his teachers, the chief tests and measuring devices, as well as the sources of professional literature through which they may train themselves in, plan, and carry out effective studies connected with teaching and learning.

Adequate equipment for directing work in curriculum, methods, and guidance. The principal of today must have training in content of the curriculum, classroom techniques, and guidance processes. He must likewise prepare himself for guiding teachers to carry on adequate procedures and improve their services as they advance through the semesters and years of their teaching careers. This conception does not stop with established in-service training devices, such as courses in education, visitation of other classes, demonstrations, and the like, but rather concerns itself with the application of ideas acquired through such means to the improvement of the educational program.

An enlightened conception of the role of the elementary school staff. More than any other member of the staff, the principal must develop in himself the capacity to envision a dynamic, as contrasted with a static, role for the elementary school faculty. He must see himself and his key teachers not only as professional workers carrying out established educational theory, but as being in a strategic position to improve on existing, or even develop new, educational theory. He must be able to sense this challenge to his leadership by virtue of the fact that the elementary school in his charge has a corps of professionally trained teachers, numerous resource people on call from central office and community, the pupils themselves, the homes, and the educational agencies of the community—in short, all the factors essential to rendering superior educational

service and also to pioneering in new curriculum and instructional areas.

STAFF CO-OPERATION IS ACHIEVED THROUGH EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Contributing factors not to be mistaken for main ingredient. Care must be observed not to place too great reliance on certain factors that, though they may assist the leadership process, cannot be substituted for dynamic, democratic guidance of the educational program. A concept, for example, that must be early grasped by the principal and supervisor assistants who desire to achieve wholehearted co-operation from the teachers of the elementary school, is that leadership is not gained through perfection and lavish use of centralized administrative machinery. Administrative policies and directives are designed to assist, not to control, the educative process. They do not shape the nature and direction of teaching and learning; instead, they are shaped by these.

The administrative head of the school must realize, too, that the presentation of an affable personality and extension of friendly overtures cannot alone be expected to achieve co-operative leadership of the faculty. A friendly attitude is essential to harmonious working relationships on a school staff; it should be reciprocal for principal and teachers, but it needs to be accompanied on the part of the principal by more positive attributes of realistic directional ability.

Attempts to place on the staff collective responsibility for guiding the school's program, accompanied by large-scale abdication of his normal functions, is not likely to bring the principal evidence of marked co-operation and effective work on the part of the staff. It is more likely to result in confusion in the school's work and unfavorable reaction from staff members. Teachers professionally trained expect the principal to assume time-honored responsibilities established for his position, particularly those that assure them of a peaceful atmosphere throughout the building and effective and economical co-

ordination of their work with that of other teachers and workers in the school. Administrative machinery that is too decentralized and diffused is fully as detrimental as overly centralized direction to co-operative educational procedure.

"Working together" on educational program is paramount. There is nothing so effective for the principal's winning the respect and support of the teaching corps as his working intelligently and harmoniously with them on the school's educational program. He does not attempt to conceal that he is their leader, but he does not, on the other hand, remind them that he is. He shows that he is willing to assume the initiative, take responsibility, and give them needed support in any phase of their work. Even when they may be in the wrong with a pupil or parent, he is considerate of their feelings, making any needed concessions to patrons in the name of the school and discussing any teacher shortcomings later in private with the teacher concerned.

In individual or group conferences with teachers regarding their work, the principal continually strives to guide them to solve their problems through study of the problems in the light of educational principles. To do this, he must himself be well versed in educational science, but he does not set himself up as the chief dispenser of it. If teachers do not readily work out solutions of problems, the principal must not, unless there is an emergency situation, rush forward with a "finished" solution. Above all, he must not hurry the process of guiding teachers to study their problems—he must realize that the democratic process takes more time than authoritarian procedure. Just as he stresses the dangers of the teachers' hurrying the learning of the pupils through "covering ground," he must permit the teachers adequate time to grow professionally in their work attitudes and practices. Patience is a virtue that will pay very generous rewards to the principal desirous of gaining recognition as a leader.

Acceptance of the members of his staff and the cultivation of an open mind toward recognizing their strengths wherever

these appear are indispensable to effective leadership. The principal must at all times, however trying certain situations may be, convey to all his sincere confidence in a teacher's ultimate ability and good will. Distribution of various types of responsibilities, fitted to each teacher's individual capacities, is a positive way in which the principal may show his acceptance of the teacher's worthiness to be a regularly sharing member of the school staff.

ENLISTMENT OF STAFF MEMBERS IN PLANNING SCHOOL'S WORK

Over-all curriculum planning a good springboard. In a foregoing chapter on curriculum construction, a description was given of an across-the-board committee, consisting first of principal and key teachers, and augmented in later stages by parents, lay citizens, and pupil leaders, that planned and stated the philosophy and scope of a curriculum fitted to the community needs. This type of committee provides a very effective example of principal-teacher co-operation. It is based on the sound principles of utilizing the school as the basic unit for curriculum construction and of democratic co-operative action of the various groups concerned with the school's curriculum. It might well be made the opening wedge for a principal desiring to democratize staff relationships because it involves simple co-operative machinery and deals with the most significant aspect of the school's work. It has the further advantage of being a continuous process in which many committees eventually involving all members of the school staff may grow purposefully out of the central committee's planning of total-curriculum objectives.

Formation of professional cabinet. As a medium for sharing the responsibility of shaping the school's policies, not only in the area of curriculum planning but also in administrative concerns, the principal will find a cabinet of marked value in enlarging the professional knowledge and understanding of staff members and of enlisting their support. The membership of a

cabinet of this type can consist of representative teachers at different grade levels and sponsors of different types of activities. The members of the cabinet consider with the principal significant questions of school policy, offering advice and criticizing the propositions that are presented by the principal for discussion. The advantages of the cabinet consist in the support gained for policies in advance of their announcement, the feeling of responsibility for the policies of the school developed in the leaders who represent different groups, and the substitution of democratic for autocratic methods of administration.

Utilizing committee across-the-board procedures. In curriculum or administrative matters that involve teachers and other school workers in different areas or levels of the school program, the interest of individual teachers may be enhanced, their understanding broadened, and their work improved by formulation of committees or groups whose members are representative of these areas or levels, instead of having decisions made by the principal, the assistant principal, a guiding counselor, or another individual member of the staff.

Mass attack on professional problems. Professional interest of individual teachers can be enhanced by stimulating and challenging the corps of teachers as a group to attack professional problems *en masse*. Momentum will be developed in professional work, causing the younger teachers through their contact with the group to become professionally stimulated and the older teachers, whose professional interest may have waned, to seek to retrieve their professional enthusiasm. Problems of professional study, such as how best to teach the fundamental operations in arithmetic, to secure extensive reading, or to make effective use in the school of visual materials, may be utilized for study by committees and the results reported to the entire group of teachers. Care should be exercised by the principal in selecting the leaders for the study of committee projects, and he should attend the meetings of each committee and also frequently confer with the leaders in order that the

time of teachers will not be spent on fruitless or misguided effort. The principal should help define and limit the problem of study, guide the committees in the effective use of the professional library in securing data, and see that the results of the study are made available for the use of the entire corps through presentation and discussion in teachers' meetings, and, possibly, publication in some school journal.

A procedure may be employed wherein the principal collaborates with the chairman of a committee in conducting a study intended to result in the professional stimulation of all members of the faculty. In order that the principal may keep in close contact with, and direct the work of, the members of a committee, he assumes the chairmanship of the committee during the period of the investigation and the teacher chairman becomes the executive secretary of the committee, attending to the details of gathering data, assembling the committee for meetings, and caring for correspondence and records. This arrangement has the twofold advantage of providing economical, effective organization of an elementary school faculty for professional study and of establishing the status of the principal as the professional leader of his teaching staff.

Delegation of professional duties as a means of stimulating growth. The principal, in delegating duties to teachers, should not concern himself primarily with the disposal of routine matters as a means of lessening his own burden. The professional aspect of the work assigned to the teacher should overshadow the gain to himself. For example, the principal may delegate to a certain teacher the sponsorship of visual education activities in the school. If he confines her activities to the sphere of caring for and distributing visual materials to the various rooms, only slight stimulus to professional growth will be likely to result. The teacher will in all probability view herself merely as a factotum for the principal, little above the level of a property clerk. However, if he challenges the teacher's interest in visual education by suggesting articles for her to read on the topic, by noting and appraising the uses she

makes of visual materials in her room, by suggesting courses in visual education that are available for study, by having her discuss with other teachers the uses of visual education, or by seeking her advice on matters pertaining to the selection of visual aids, he will have stimulated the teacher professionally through the specific service rendered to the school.

PRINCIPAL'S LEADERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL GROWTH OF TEACHERS

Responsibility of principal for professional improvement of teacher personnel. There is no greater test of leadership on the part of a principal than his positive influence on the professional growth of his teachers. If he is accepted by his teachers merely as a school executive and not as a professional leader, he cannot be regarded as a successful principal. He is responsible for contributing definitely to the professional improvement of his teachers and he will probably not succeed unless he becomes to them a stimulating professional leader.

The principal of necessity occupies a position of executive authority; he has the right to issue orders, and members of his staff will expect him to do so when necessary. He may issue wise and effective instructions and yet not inspire the members of his corps to recognize and accept his professional leadership. A school may outwardly bear the signs of efficient administration and yet lack the spirit and vitality that real professional leadership contributes. For example, a principal, as the administrative head of the school, may issue orders that pupils are to be encouraged to assume the responsibilities of self-government and that all teachers are to encourage the assumption of these responsibilities by pupils; that is, the principal attempts to establish self-government on the part of pupils by administrative order. Many principals have issued such orders and have seen their efforts fail through lack of sympathy and understanding on the part of the teachers who have tried to carry them out. To secure earnest, effective execution of his orders, the principal must exercise his professional leadership.

If he desires to develop his school as a laboratory for the training of his pupils in the practice of governing themselves, he must first develop in himself the ability to lead his teachers to accept with him a conception of education that will result in that type of organization. There is something more subtle in leadership than obtaining perfunctory obedience; the leader must merit the respect and confidence of his followers and, at the same time, challenge them to follow. If the principal, as a leader, sets the pace in professional endeavor, he is almost certain to have willing followers who will comply with the spirit of his instructions and regulations. Leadership in professional growth is an important function of administration, and the principal must furnish the elements of professional growth for his teachers.

Professional growth requires direction. The elements of professional growth require direction and control. Professional ambition, for example, is an element of growth that may be developed in individual teachers to the point of personal selfishness and, as a result, interfere with professional spirit and true professional growth. On the other hand, professional ambition may be dormant in individual teachers; and, before it will develop, considerable nourishment and direction must be supplied. Normal development of professional ambition in a corps of teachers seldom results without wise professional leadership on the part of the principal. He must provide for his teachers the incentives to professional growth.

Professional recognition as an incentive to growth. Professional recognition is usually a natural and legitimate desire of all capable professional workers, but to be effective it should be timely. When an individual has devoted years of study and effort to a career in a given field, he has the right to expect and to anticipate a certain degree of professional recognition. On the contrary, the novice is not entitled to professional recognition, but it may act as an incentive to impel him to strive for professional status.

If the principal is skillful, on the one hand, in giving profes-

sional recognition, it becomes a strong incentive to his teachers to put forth the effort that will result in professional growth; on the other hand, if he rarely or never recognizes or shows appreciation of professional effort on the part of his teachers, he destroys by his own professional dereliction the incentives of his teachers to improve. Under the latter type of leadership, many teachers will develop the attitude of "what's-the-use." They drift along with the current, rendering fair professional service, whereas they are capable of rendering superior service.

Professional recognition by a principal does not imply mere commendation, but rather confidence in professional ability. For example, the principal of a given school may have a primary teacher whose knowledge and skill in the teaching of primary reading are distinctly superior. The principal recognizes her superiority, not by frequent compliments, but through professional consultation on matters pertaining to primary reading. He may ask the privilege of sending young teachers to visit her room, or of utilizing her in conferences with other teachers on the improvement of primary reading. Such recognition acts as an incentive to further professional study and growth. It is possible for principals to utilize professional recognition with many teachers as a powerful incentive in the development of professional growth.

Professional advancement as an incentive to growth. Professional advancement is one of the rewards of professional recognition. It implies change in professional status. A teacher who has been recognized by a principal for outstanding professional work may be advanced in rank with an increase in salary as a result of the character of services rendered. If advancement is given as a reward of professional recognition and is not obtained through social or political influences, it will generally operate as an incentive to professional improvement.

School systems should be organized with a view to using professional advancement as an incentive to professional growth. The principal gives professional recognition to the teacher through a superior rating, invites the attention of su-

perior officers to the qualities of the teacher that warrant her advancement, and encourages the teacher to undertake the professional preparation required for advancement in position.

In the second place, the school system should provide opportunities for horizontal advancement; that is, advancement within a given field. To illustrate, a primary teacher of superior merit should be eligible for promotion to a primary position in a demonstration school, teachers' college, or primary supervisorship. The question may be raised by some principals, "Why should a principal weaken his staff for the sake of advancing an individual teacher?" The advancement of a teacher may temporarily result in the weakening of the staff; but it will also result in the ultimate strengthening of the staff, true incentives to professional growth will be established, and the principal will have demonstrated his ability as a professional leader through his training and recognition of the deserving teacher for professional advancement.

Opportunity for unique service as an incentive to growth. The satisfaction resulting from doing educational work exceptionally well acts as an incentive for many teachers to strive for professional improvement. The principal who has scientific training and a professional attitude toward his work will experience no difficulty in indicating to teachers the wide sphere of service to pupils and community existing for the teacher who acquires special professional ability. Unique opportunities to serve children, not only through expert classroom service, but also through improvement in health habits, civic attitudes, and recreational pursuits, are opened to the teacher who prepares herself professionally for these special types of service.

Providing a challenging school environment. Many teachers will eagerly respond to the challenge of a professional environment. Excellent building accommodations, first-class equipment, and modern materials of instruction act as stimuli to professional growth on the part of teachers. Poor facilities, on the other hand, may discourage teachers and contribute to a low state of professional morale. If these observations are true,

the principal must seek to influence the professional improvement of *his teachers* through the school environment that he creates. There is probably no better test of his professional leadership than the influence he exerts on the material environment of the school.

If the principal would utilize school environment as a stimulus to professional improvement, he must consistently and systematically seek to improve the conditions that constitute school environment. He must see that the school building and equipment are properly kept and repaired, the supplies adequately provided, and the aids to teaching furnished both in generous amounts and at the time they are needed by the teachers. He must also encourage the teacher to find and to undertake the solution of problems arising in her work. To this end he must give sympathetic encouragement, material assistance, and due recognition to the plans of the teacher with respect to professional growth. By organizing and administering his school as a laboratory that challenges teachers to study their problems, the principal creates powerful stimuli to professional improvement.

Classroom experimentation as a means of growth. Encouragement of limited experimentation in special techniques of classroom instruction or with the materials of instruction not only results in the professional growth of the teacher undertaking the experiment but also frequently stimulates other teachers to study modern classroom technique and procedures. Such experimentation, however, should be permitted only after the principal is assured that it will be carried on within limits compatible with the *interests and progress of the pupils* involved, and that it will not affect the classroom efficiency of the teacher conducting the experiment.

The amount of classroom experimentation that can be advantageously carried on by members of a teaching staff should receive the serious attention of the principal of an elementary school. He should identify the problems which promise definite benefits for the pupils, the solutions of which lie within the

training and abilities of the teacher undertaking them, and for which adequate facilities are available in the school. He must be able both to promote experimentation by teachers on projects that he himself considers of value without unduly increasing their work and to guide them effectively in projects inaugurated by them without destroying initiative or enthusiasm. He must also be mindful of the fact that new methods and materials are usually best introduced into a school by gradual stages. Certain teachers may be willing to try out new procedures; they may be encouraged, and, as the results become evident, other teachers may suggest other innovations for trial and experimentation, or may be encouraged to undertake certain phases of work already under experimentation. One teacher may prefer to work alone on a project; another may choose to work with a second teacher in order to make comparisons and have additional support and counsel as she proceeds. The principal should take into consideration, therefore, the value to the school, the facilities available, and the ability and temperament of the individual teachers in determining the experiments that may be carried on in his school.

The types of classroom methods on which teachers may experiment should as a rule grow out of the local school situation. An experiment in visual education in the primary grades may be the means of meeting the needs of pupils in a poor residence district of a large city. A teacher, or two teachers in conjunction, may work on special types of seat work in the primary grades, not only devising materials that will improve instruction in their own rooms, but also influencing the quality of seat materials devised by other teachers in the primary division. A project in social studies in one room often results in a project in arithmetic or reading being launched in another room. One teacher may search professional literature for aids in organizing the materials of arithmetic into units of instruction; another will be encouraged to try a plan of individual instruction in the same subject. The principal who can interest his teachers in carrying on educational experiments will have no difficulty

in getting the teachers to do professional reading. The teachers will search the latest books, courses of study, and magazines for materials bearing on their problems. Conversation at school will center on the merits of various methods and materials, and the professional library will become a center of professional activity.

DELEGATION OF PROFESSIONAL DUTIES AS A MEANS OF STIMULATING GROWTH

Furnishing opportunities for creative school work. The principal must be able to carry on productive professional work and to train members of his staff to organize and write materials in scientific form. He must be prepared to show teachers how to find professional literature in the field in which they are interested, how and when to do intensive or extensive reading, and how to outline and organize their materials, whether these consist of units of instruction, supplementary work materials, or articles for publication. He must likewise be able to plan and organize a demonstration of classroom work so that the teacher giving the demonstration and the attending teachers will regard the demonstration in the light of a "clinic" on educational methods or materials. One of the best opportunities for familiarizing teachers with productive professional work develops when an individual teacher makes a contribution in a field in which she has undertaken a problem for special professional study. The teacher may be encouraged to prepare the results of her study for publication. At this point, however, the leadership of the principal will receive a vital test. If the teacher is to make a contribution of value to workers in the field and is to acquire adequate professional knowledge and skill, the article must be prepared in accordance with standards acceptable to leading professional journals. For example, the teacher who lacks experience in writing may simply describe a program of activity without reference to the literature on the topic or without knowledge of other programs in the same field. Her article may be poorly organized, and her

ideas poorly expressed. If necessary, the principal may act as the adviser of the teacher, or, in case the study is her first attempt, collaborate with her in the preparation of the article. In this way he may impart valuable training by advising the teacher to read extensively in the field before outlining the article, by showing her how to assemble and organize data, by teaching her the importance of documenting important statements, and by demonstrating the value of basing statements on factual evidence rather than on opinion.

The principal may also encourage a teacher who is doing exceptional work in a classroom activity to prepare an article for a school journal based upon her project. He should see that she first does extensive reading of current literature on her topic or related topics and, when this has been done, he should show her how to organize her data and should indicate how to interpret them so that her conclusions will have a basis of fact. With such guidance the teacher should be able to turn out a creditable piece of creative work worthy of publication and useful to colleagues in her field, and, most important of all, she will have acquired new perspective and professional power from her study and writing. If the principal holds frequent conferences with teachers and keeps in touch with their professional interests, he may often be able to suggest to them how term papers in educational courses and theses in their graduate work may be based on vital problems in the school. This lends significance to the work in professional courses; promotes and develops scientific attitudes on the part of the teachers; and encourages the habit of preparing concise, well-organized papers on school projects that are worthy of publication. Projects are often carried out in elementary schools by teacher committees and by individual teachers that have special significance for other educational workers, but that are lost to the profession through failure to publish results.

The principal may do much toward securing publication of the results of worthy studies made by individuals or groups of his teachers. At times, he may secure the publication of espe-

cially significant studies in pamphlet form by the board of education; in large school systems he may secure publication in the official school journal of the system, in the yearbook of the principals' club, or in a magazine of national scope. When the form of the materials is not convenient for magazine publication, the superintendent may desire to have the materials duplicated and distributed to other schools in the system.

In addition to providing training in creative professional work, the principal must also supply materials to make such work as easy and inexpensive as possible. If the teacher desires to develop a special type of primary work material, the principal may aid her by securing samples of the most modern work materials, books, and manuals available for her survey of the field. He may provide in the office or in a special workroom for teachers the necessary stencils, stamping sets, paper stock, and mimeograph. He may place at the disposal of the teacher a typewriter with primer-size type. The service of the printing department of the school for special printing; the service of the art teacher in making slides, cuts, and other visual aids; and the aid of the teacher in the woodshop in making special cases for filing materials may be secured. Support in securing materials and facilities creates an atmosphere especially conducive to productive professional effort by teachers.

Developing a professional library. When the principal has adopted administrative measures designed to provide adequate motivation for the utilization of professional literature, he should next direct his attention to providing for the teachers convenient access to professional books, magazines, monographs, and research bulletins. Frequently, teachers club together to buy and exchange professional books, or to subscribe for certain professional magazines. In many school systems it is possible for the principal to apportion a certain part of the budget each year to supplying new professional books for the use of his staff. Even a small sum, such as fifty dollars, will purchase from ten to fifteen new books during the year. This means a great addition to the professional literature available

for a teaching staff during a given year. To make effective systematic use of such books the principal will usually find it expedient to organize a professional library for the school.

The interest in the professional library will be stimulated if the principal gives the teachers a direct voice and share in the organization and direction of the library. To this end, the principal should designate a committee of teachers to act with him in selecting books, formulating regulations for conducting the library, cataloguing books, and planning the methods of financing the project. Great care should be exercised by the principal in selecting a chairman for this committee. The teacher selected should have the right professional attitude, be a willing worker, and possess influence and leadership among the teachers. When the personnel of the committee is determined, the principal may present to the members the chief problems to be solved in the establishment of an effective professional library for the staff.

The selection of books and magazines, and the methods of securing them, will constitute the chief problems for the consideration of the committee. In some instances it may be suggested that each teacher submit a book as a nucleus for the professional library. This plan is sometimes utilized in school systems where the board of education does not furnish professional books on requisition of the principal. It incurs the risk of starting the library with obsolete books. Teachers are sometimes inclined to submit books that they have previously used in professional courses and that are suitable only for special needs. Such a procedure may arouse skepticism among the teachers concerning the value of the library. The provision should be made that only books that are approved by the library committee will be accepted for the professional library.

Where books and magazines are not furnished for the professional use of teachers by the board of education, the raising and maintenance of funds for the support of the library will become an important function of the committee. Funds may be raised by yearly subscriptions of teachers, by use of the

petty-cash fund of the principal, or by donations from the parent-teacher association. In general, the first-named method will be found the most satisfactory, because the other two sources are usually utilized for the direct needs of the school or children. Teachers rarely object to spending money for subscriptions to new professional books and magazines, especially if the amount required from each individual is small. Very successful professional libraries in local schools have been launched on subscriptions of two dollars per year for each teacher, with a reduction to one dollar yearly after the first two years.² Even when books and magazines have been placed on the requisition lists in school systems, teachers have been known to vote for the continuance of modest subscription rates for their elementary school professional libraries in order to secure special professional materials that may not appear on the school board lists.³

The members of the professional library committee can be helpful to the principal in a variety of ways. They can survey the professional reading needs of teachers in special departments, such as the kindergarten, shop, physical education, home economics, and subnormal divisions. They may ascertain what educational magazines are helpful to teachers at various grade levels. They may designate certain members of the committee to act as librarians, and devise a simple catalogue system for accounting for the books and distribution of magazines. The adoption of a system of safeguarding books from loss, without at the same time making restrictions so severe as to discourage the free circulation of the library materials, is a worthy service for the committee to perform. Consistent follow-up and guidance of the activities of the committee by the principal will insure the establishment and maintenance of an efficient professional library.

No matter how effectively the professional library may be

² Paul R. Pierce and Hattie E. Wetherell, "The Professional Library in the Elementary School," *Chicago Principals' Club Reporter*, XXI (May, 1931), 4.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 4.

organized, its best services will not be utilized unless the principal effectively advertises its advantages. This may be done by pointing out the values of new professional books or by means of reports given at teachers' meetings or notices in the principal's bulletins. Conferences with teachers may reveal special problems, and the habit of utilizing the library may thus be developed.

Creating scientific teacher attitudes toward duties. Professional attitude can be developed in a corps of teachers if the principal can lead them to study their problems scientifically. For example, a teacher who is assigned to special supervision of some play-time activities may be inclined to look upon the work as being boring, tedious, and fraught with unpleasant episodes when discipline difficulties arise among pupils. However, the principal may train her to adopt a scientific attitude toward this work, to make a study of the management of intermission periods, to introduce approved methods of organized play and games among the pupils, and to make herself not only a capable director of play but a valued adviser to the principal on all matters affecting the intermission periods. At the point when the teacher begins to study the educational situation in which she is engaged and to analyze the elements of the given situation with a view to improving her method of attack, professional growth begins.

Encouraging teacher contacts with community. The principal of an elementary school should advise his new teachers with respect to appropriate contacts to be made in the community and the relationships of teachers toward the various business, social, and cultural agencies of both school and home community. Community relationships may frequently have a marked influence on the teacher's health and mental set and consequently are to be reckoned with in any program of professional improvement of the teaching staff. Outstanding elements of the teacher's social and cultural contacts are the choice of living accommodations; adaptability to various racial and language groups in the school community; and relation-

ships with church, fraternal organizations, parent-teacher association, women's clubs, civic leagues, and commercial clubs. The principal may aid the teacher greatly in regulating community contacts so that her energies are not dissipated through membership in too many organizations and so that the total time expended forms a reasonable proportion of the teacher's spare time.

Opportunities for special service. In a large system the superintendent frequently utilizes committees for special services, such as the revision of existing courses of study and the selection of books and other instructional materials. When the principal is asked to recommend teachers for special service, he should recommend members of his staff who are fitted for the work, even though the temporary loss of such teachers will be felt in his school. By doing so he will render a professional service to the school system, give recognition to professional-minded teachers, and promote professional growth among all the members of his staff. Moreover, the professional zest that the teacher brings back to the school and disseminates among the other members of the corps will more than compensate for the loss occasioned by her absence during the period of her special service.

Preserving morale of beginning teacher. Frequently the young teacher enters upon the duties of her first assignment eager to render efficient professional service in her chosen field, only to find herself abandoned by the principal after a few routine directions have been given. She is compelled to shift for herself in the solution of trying problems and to expose her valuable professional enthusiasm to the harsh assaults of the machinelike demands of a large system and not infrequently to the none too wholesome influence of unprofessional teachers. The principal has a twofold duty to the beginning teacher: first, to aid and support her in solving the problems that she encounters; and second, definitely and consistently to encourage her to maintain a wholesome attitude and unimpaired morale with respect to her work. For example, both the be-

ginning teacher and the teacher new to the system may often find, when they undertake to develop new projects, attempt special services to the school, or even try to render a high type of service in regular school duties, that certain teachers will immediately caution them not to be too zealous, that no thanks will be received for such efforts, and that in reality they are merely making things hard for the other teachers. It is not agreeable to discover that within a professional group are to be found unethical people who work to the detriment of its members, but it is a fact which the principal must sometimes face. Under such conditions the principal must either make himself the professional leader of his young teachers, or someone else whose influence may not be professionally desirable will become their leader. The professional-minded principal will decide that it is his duty to be the leader of his teachers; and, anticipating his problems with respect to his new teachers, he will plan professional challenges to secure and maintain their interests.

In addition to keeping in close contact with the work of the new teachers, stimulating their interest and aiding them in solving their problems, the principal should undertake to give them direct training in professional ethics, attitudes, and conduct to be observed in the school. Too often it is taken for granted that this work has been sufficiently done in the teachers' college, or that young teachers possess innate qualities that will adequately guide them in the complex situations, social or professional, that may arise in the school. The principal should remember, however, that young teachers represent many different social, domestic, and cultural backgrounds; that many of them are very sensitive to suggestion or criticism from their fellow-workers; and that the school situation with its new responsibilities and relationships toward teachers, pupils, parents, and principal is often complicated and bewildering for the novice in the profession. Accordingly, the principal, through a series of individual or group conferences, should instruct the beginning teachers in the essentials of

ethical and professional conduct toward their pupils, fellow-teachers, the public consisting of parents and visiting patrons, the building engineer and his assistant custodians, and the principal and other executive and consulting officials. To make this instruction most effective, the principal should avoid the method of lecturing or sermonizing. The discussions should be well planned, tactful, and vital.

At times conferences may be led by professional-minded teachers who command the admiration and respect of the entire teaching corps. If points such as the value of independent thought and action, the necessity of being able to work under a leader, and the care that should be exercised in selecting intimate associates among her fellow-workers are adequately treated, the young teacher will be guided in intelligently orienting herself in her new surroundings and will be materially aided in maintaining her professional morale. The principal, moreover, will have the opportunity of subtly presenting many of his viewpoints and responsibilities to the younger teachers, with the result that his policies with respect to personnel management may be received with greater sympathy and intelligence. Teachers are sometimes prone to linger in a group or groups in or near the administrative office before the beginning of the morning session. If the principal forbids this through the issuance of a verbal order or a notice in the school bulletin, he may appear to the young teacher as being unduly strict, an impression that may be strengthened by the side remarks of the unprofessional type of teacher previously mentioned. However, if it is pointed out to the beginning teacher that the careless habit of lingering at the office door may influence pupils; that workers about the building and visitors to the office may as a result form and express opinions concerning the laxity of members of the teaching profession; and that accepted professional ethics decrees that the teacher should be in her room early preparing for the pupils' needs, she will see the matter in a very different light. The principal should always take definite steps

to develop the right professional attitudes on the part of the young teachers under his administrative guidance.

Activities conducive to professional and personal growth. The principal of an elementary school will find many other general activities as media for the professional and personal growth of members of his staff—such as conducting and visiting classroom demonstrations; visiting schools carrying on significant educational experiments; advising teachers on the need for adequate investment and insurance safeguards; giving guidance in safeguarding the teachers' health; aiding in providing methods and facilities for the recreation of teachers; guarding against excessive outside work by teachers, such as too much night-school or summer-school work or taking too many courses at a time in working for a degree during the school year; encouraging teachers to speak at community or professional meetings; and establishing and maintaining contacts for the teachers with teacher-training institutions.

Assisting teachers in self-rating. The incentives, means, and devices for promoting the professional growth of teachers will probably not be utilized fully unless the principal assists the individual teacher in discovering her particular difficulties, personal faults, and professional deficiencies through analysis and self-rating. Often principals hesitate to take this step, fearing possible sensitiveness and unfavorable emotional reactions on the part of the teacher if personal shortcomings are discussed. However, the principal should assume that the teacher is a mature, broad-minded person, capable of taking an impersonal view of matters that involve her professional qualifications and anxious to take measures that may improve her professional service. The study of teachers' traits and activities furnishes an excellent basis for the development of individual programs of professional improvement.

The lists of traits set forth in the scales for rating teachers are inadequate and often superficial. Traits should be known and clearly defined. Almost any teacher, if asked to enumerate the traits of a successful teacher, could probably name five or

six offhand, but would be puzzled concerning the rest. By utilizing professional literature on teacher traits, the average teacher can acquire a comprehensive knowledge of traits. Charters and Waples have developed a master list of 83 specific teacher traits.* These traits have been telescoped into 26 outstanding traits, as follows:

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| 1. Adaptability. | 14. Good taste. |
| 2. Appreciativeness. | 15. Health. |
| 3. Attractive personal appearance. | 16. Honesty. |
| 4. Breadth of interest. | 17. Intellectual curiosity. |
| 5. Considerateness. | 18. Leadership. |
| 6. Co-operation. | 19. Magnetism. |
| 7. Definiteness. | 20. Openmindedness. |
| 8. Diligence. | 21. Progressiveness. |
| 9. Dependability. | 22. Promptness. |
| 10. Enthusiasm. | 23. Propriety. |
| 11. Exactness. | 24. Scholarship. |
| 12. Good judgment. | 25. Self-possession. |
| 13. Forcefulness. | 26. Thrift. |

The question naturally arises: How shall these traits be utilized? The authors furnish illustrations, showing that each trait operates in a certain way, which may be termed "trait action." A teacher can use the list of traits for the purpose of self-analysis. In order to check herself on "Exactness," for example, she considers whether or not she keeps pupil records correctly, pronounces technical terms properly, requires pupils to do their work accurately and correctly, gives accurate assignments, makes correct factual statements concerning subject matter, follows instruction carefully, hands in correct reports and record books, and rechecks reports before sending them to the principal. The illustration shows how trait evaluation may be worked out by a teacher on the basis of trait action.

* W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher Training Study* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929), pp. 64-65, 68-69.

The centering of attention of teachers on the study of traits and trait action should result in their professional growth. The principal should encourage the study of traits by the teacher as a means of self-rating. The principal and teacher may both list the trait actions that are prominent in the teacher's work and then compare their lists with the outstanding traits given in standard trait lists.³

If there are activities that a certain teacher ought to perform and that she fails to perform, the list of traits and trait actions should aid her in cultivating the fallow fields. For example, one of the sections of the Charters and Waples Commonwealth Study enumerates the teacher activities involved in classroom instruction. There are subdivisions on developing subject matter; planning; selecting activities to be planned; selecting of objectives; planning, selecting, and organizing subject matter; planning methods of developing interests on the part of the pupils; *planning methods of instruction*; *planning methods of assigning work*; planning methods of providing sufficient opportunity for pupil activities; evaluating pupil needs; and developing teachers' personal traits. A subheading on finding adequate time for planning includes writing and recording of plans. Here may be a fertile field for certain teachers who may never have been required to plan their work. Planning as an activity, then, becomes a means of professional growth for them. By making traits a problem for study, the principal may influence and stimulate his whole staff on the question of trait actions. Instead of merely pointing out the trait in which the teacher ought to improve, the given trait is analyzed and specific phases are emphasized. Professional growth thus becomes a matter of scientific development when the attack is made on the specific elements in need of improvement. Too frequently administrators deal in vague generalities with respect to teaching activities. The principal, by utilizing bodies of data such

³ See "A Study of the Factors that Characterize Superior Teachers," *Third Yearbook, Chicago Principals' Club*, pp. 181-82; also, "Ethics in the Teaching Profession," *op. cit.*, p. 35.

as the Commonwealth Study makes available, may greatly stimulate and develop professional growth in his teachers through directing their attention to specific traits and trait actions.

RELATIONSHIPS INVOLVED IN CO-OPERATIVE PRINCIPAL-TEACHER ACTION

In the course of the principal's co-operative planning of school policies and practices with teachers, differences are almost certain to arise about relationships involved in initiating plans, in discussing procedures, in placement of responsibilities, and in final authority for what is done. There is the question about how requests or criticisms of individual teachers or groups of teachers coming from outside the regular framework of teacher-principal action are to be dealt with and decided. Prominent in this area are questions involving working conditions, teacher health, teacher action affecting public relations, understanding of purposes of administration, teachers' administrative responsibilities, and the like.

Providing time for staff conferences. How to utilize democratic procedures in staff conferences and yet make the conferences economical and effective is a problem that confronts the principal in his co-operative work with teachers, because co-operative work decidedly increases the number of conferences as contrasted with autocratic ways.

Provision for suitable times that will not disrupt classwork or otherwise put undue strain on the nervous or emotional stability of the teachers is a responsibility that rests essentially with the principal. If he is given latitude by his official superiors, as he should be, to arrange convenient times for conference with his teachers, he should be able to lead them to accept a policy that is both professionally sound and reciprocally satisfactory. In formulating the policy, heed must be observed for matters of extra-class duties, home problems, professional classes, and travel conditions of staff members. Men and women teachers often have differing responsibilities,

attitudes, and health factors that must be considered. The policy arrived at will undoubtedly utilize both scheduled class and extra-class hours of the teachers, as well as a variety of periods and situations throughout the day or week. Examples of provisions which may prove effective are as follows:

1. *The large-recitation situation.* An auditorium arts program may be so planned that it can be directed by one or two teachers, thus leaving a number of other teachers free to carry on a conference. Pupil leaders from the upper grades may be trained to assist in the case of assemblies for primary pupils.

2. *Small-group conferences* may be arranged during class hours by having pupil leaders in each room supervised by a teacher who moves about guiding the activities of the pupils in the rooms concerned.

3. *Noon-hour meetings* in which a conference of a half hour or more of the entire staff, or an appreciable number of the staff, may be held, the teachers eating together to save time in assembling and initiating the agenda of the day. Some schools have extended this type of meeting to an hour or more by enlisting certain members of the parent-teacher association to take the place of the teachers in caring for the pupils for a period following the opening of the afternoon session.

4. *An after-school period*, particularly for considering purely educational phases of the schools' program, is usually considered an essential ingredient of a sound policy of staff meetings.

5. *An evening meeting* beginning with an early staff dinner and lasting two or three hours often furnishes a welcome variation in procedure and a distinct aid to large-enterprise planning.

6. A "*quickie*"-type meeting, mainly for discussing emergency problems or new school routines, may be occasionally held before the morning assembling of classes. Such meetings are usually not more than ten or fifteen minutes in length.

7. *Nonclass periods of teachers* should be utilized as they occur in the school's program. Such periods should be provided during the school week for all teachers, but if these are not

scheduled, the principal should bring teachers together when opportunity thus occurs, remembering that small conferences of teachers from different instructional areas or grade levels may be extremely helpful in solving professional problems outside their classroom spheres of action.

8. *Workshops before school term opens*, lasting one to three weeks and attended on pay by all members of the staff, should be established as regular procedure for long range staff planning. A session of this type will do much to facilitate, and in some instances decrease the number of, staff meetings necessary to conduct the work of the school year.

Procedure in conducting staff conferences. With satisfactory provision made for times of staff gatherings, the principal should find himself in a favorable position to consider with his teacher colleagues the problem of how most effectively to conduct stimulating and purposeful conferences. Certain procedures proved helpful through experience are at this point worthy of the principal's serious attention.

The physical situation should be comfortable and conducive to free, easy expression of views by all members of the conference. For all group or work sessions, the seating should be informal, a table large enough for all to use being extremely helpful. Sometimes sitting in a "rough" circle is preferred by the group, particularly if the conference is held in a social room or place where large chairs or settees are available. If the group consists of only two or three persons, the nearest convenient place may be suitable. Distance from teachers' rooms, stairs to be climbed, and the like are factors to be considered. Cabinet meetings may be held most conveniently in the principal's office.

Freedom in discussion. The principal must continuously and consistently strive for freedom in discussion. Much can be gained by the principal's early enlisting staff members in drafting certain provisions that might serve as safeguards to encourage, give confidence to, and protect from hearsay, members desiring to express views on problems containing controversial

or confidential elements. The following provisions are among those found helpful in certain conference situations in elementary schools:

1. No recording in writing or otherwise is made during conferences, minutes being written up in impersonal style afterward when minutes are deemed necessary. This would not preclude group agreements arrived at during meeting being written out at the time. It may also be advisable at times to omit names of members in the minutes.

2. Members reporting action in a conference orally to persons not in attendance refrain from using names of members or ascribing certain statements to them. This preserves a confidential type of protection making for frankness in discussion.

3. The principal or supervisor, as ranking status person in the group, must be prepared to have his democratizing ways criticized unfavorably by some, as well as embraced in welcome fashion by others. The former may expect him, as head of the school, to make and state policies and practices. A few may even resist co-operative measures because of the effort and responsibility involved. The principal must be able to demonstrate that the co-operative way is more effective than the autocratic procedure.

4. The democratic machinery set up by the principal and staff must be scrupulously observed by the principal in particular. The temptation for the principal will consist mainly in his desire to override decisions arrived at by a group in favor of what he knows to be a more effective procedure. He must remember at this point that the democratic process is slower than authoritarian procedure, and that the initiative and confidence gained by the teachers is likely to be of as much or more value than any single solution of the problem in question.

5. The principal must anticipate, and have included in co-operative provisions, necessary safeguards such as the requirement of his own approval in certain administrative areas. For example, in a meeting of his own cabinet, the principal may not wish to put the decision in a certain matter to a vote; but

if he does put the matter to a vote, he should abide by the vote as cast by the cabinet members.

6. Provisions arrived at by the principal and staff for conducting staff conferences and meetings should include agreements on what does or does not comprise democratic procedure. Some feel that if such machinery as electing chairmen or voting on issues is employed, good results are certain to result. The principle here to be observed is that whatever method the group agrees on is a democratic procedure by virtue of that agreement. Thus, appointment of a chairman by the principal is democratic if the group agrees that this procedure is suitable for the occasion. A study of principles of American government may facilitate thinking in these areas. Such matters as appointment and the making of final decisions by a single person is part of the American democratic framework.

7. Final decisions on issues are not always possible, or at times are even not desirable. Sometimes only a record of progress to date is possible. An informal consensus on a problem may be more helpful at a given time than a formal vote on a final solution. *Further study of educational principles bearing on the problem may be indicated.*

8. The principal, in selecting members of important committees, should avoid a tendency always to select key teachers whose views are likely through close association to reflect his own views. He should also include at times, even on major committees, teachers of whose views he is not certain and who may be opposed to his viewpoint. Interlocking membership makes for better co-ordination and consequently improved understanding of policies and practices throughout the staff.

9. The principal should develop confidence in all teachers, that their views, even though the reflections of widely varying temperaments, will always be respected and that frankness in opposing the principal's views will never result in retaliation of any nature.

10. Leadership must be exercised by the principal to lessen

tensions arising from discussion through getting all members of the staff to accept one another rather than to attempt to "reform" staff members whose views or personality traits differ markedly from one's own.

PRINCIPAL-TEACHER CO-OPERATION FOR IMPROVED WORKING CONDITIONS

Just as improved conditions for learning bring attendant improved conditions for teachers, so improving the working conditions for teachers results in benefits to pupils and their learning situations. Teachers who are healthful, rested, and imbued with a sense of the fairness of their employer and superior officers are in a position to render enthusiastic and well-planned professional service to pupils.

Principal's relation to teacher groups within building. The principal may be faced with the problem of dealing with committees of teachers concerned with problems of teacher welfare in addition to meeting requests of individual teachers. He should meet and listen to complaints or recommendations of all individuals on an equitable and impartial basis. However, his staff welfare action should be based on professional and all-member considerations. If all staff members are at the same time members of a common organization, the situation is facilitated, provided no individual or group within the organization makes opposing requests.

Principal sensitive of teacher health and comfort. The principal should at all times be alert to conditions that affect teachers' physical, emotional, and mental health in the course of their daily work. Such provisions as adequate rest rooms, guarding against undue stair-climbing, sufficient intermission between changes of classroom, and a peaceful and tastefully maintained lunchroom environment should be a matter of first interest to the principal desirous of successful professional leadership of the staff. All comfort factors within the local school jurisdiction should receive prompt attention of the

principal; factors dependent on central office co-operation should be kept on his agenda until they are adequately met.

Principal shares responsibility with teachers for school's shortcomings. The principal must give thoroughgoing support to teachers in cases of serious breaches of discipline by pupils and of unwarranted criticism of teachers by parents or other lay citizens. He should not hesitate to call conferences of other teachers either to adjust pupil problem cases or to investigate causes of complaints against individual members of the staff or the programs of the school. If the school or teacher service appears to justify criticism, the principal assumes the blame in the name of the school, assures the patron that proper adjustment will be made, and then deals in a constructive way with the staff members or pupils concerned. If the situation appears to warrant it, he may bring teachers and parents together with the suggestion that they work out a joint solution of the problem that has arisen.

Staff morale and welfare to be a shared responsibility. Too often teachers are permitted to place the total burden of staff spirit and welfare on the principal. The principal from the beginning should instill in teachers a sense of their personal influence and professional responsibility for staff conditions. For example, an unprofessionally disposed teacher may be undermining the zeal of young teachers or otherwise disturbing the spirit of the staff. Certain teachers may spread unfounded rumors or gossip throughout the school. Still other staff members may be tardy to, or neglectful of, assigned duties in a way that handicaps and makes more difficult the work of others of the teaching corps. The principal should encourage individual teachers to reason with such teachers, appealing to them to carry their proper professional share in improving working and social conditions for the teachers in general.

A favorable opportunity to consider reciprocal responsibilities may occur when committees of organizations wait on the principal requesting certain welfare improvements or concessions. He may in turn request the committees to work on prob-

lems of teacher conduct that would likewise improve the conditions under which teachers live and work in the school.

Dealing with individual teacher problems. Not all of the principal's concerns in leadership of teaching personnel will be connected with teacher groups. The individual teacher may have serious personality differences with certain teachers, pupils, or the principal himself. Problems with pupils are usually a matter of regular procedure in the area of pupil personnel. When the teacher complains of, and states that she cannot get along with, another teacher, the principal strives to make clear to the complaining teacher that she should accept the other teacher's personality and realize that, because all come to school primarily to do a professional service, the main requirement is impersonal working relationships (not close social friendships) with one's colleagues. Usually patient effort over a period of time will serve to bring the teacher acceptable work relations with the one about whom she complains. Often the two teachers can be brought together and satisfactory solutions found for their difficulties.

The principal can best solve the problem of a teacher's taking a personal stand against himself by steadfastly maintaining a patient, a kindly, and above all, an impersonal attitude toward the teacher, regardless of how unpleasant the teacher may make the situation. He can make it clear to himself, to the teacher, and to others that he will under no circumstances be a party to a lasting quarrel or grudge, and that if he should be drawn into a heated argument with a teacher, that his anger is a matter only of the moment and the incident is promptly forgotten. He should probably never require an apology to himself, and if he wishes to apologize publicly to a teaching colleague, he may possibly be able to accomplish more by indirect means, such as deserved recognition of certain aspects of the teacher's work, than by an open declaration. Private apologies to an individual teacher or other means of showing his serious concern for her good will should be made whenever the situation warrants.

LEADERSHIP IN IMPROVING CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION

The key element in the principal's leadership of teachers is, as has been noted, his work with them in improving the educational program. Though the classroom is not the only medium for imparting instruction, it is assuredly the most important; consequently, the principal's main techniques for exercising a democratic yet effective influence on classroom action is here worthy of attention.

Obtaining purposeful access to classroom. Because the teacher is a professionally trained worker in the field of classroom instruction, the principal's relation to her is far from that of a foreman directing the work of a day laborer; in fact, the teacher and class are not only the conducting, but also the planning, agency in the work of the class. The principal or other supervisor is therefore in need of good reasons for visiting the classroom with any degree of frequency. The best of all reasons is, of course, that he comes to assist in the work. The area in which the principal can perhaps render the greatest assistance is that of materials of instruction. The principal desiring to obtain welcome access to the classroom may accordingly find that discovering and servicing needs in educational equipment and supplies, such as books, leaflets, work exercises, duplicating equipment, and audiovisual aids, as well as professional materials for the teacher, provide the most effective approach to classroom visitation.

Forming curriculum partnership with teacher. With easy relationships established with the teacher and class through the common language and needs of instructional materials, the principal should develop long-range ties concerned with curriculum planning and action. The teacher, having worked with over-all curriculum planning with other members of the staff, realizes the need for co-ordination and integration of curriculum action between classrooms and other learning divisions of the school's program. She further realizes that the principal is the key person in accomplishing this integration in the ele-

mentary school and that this necessitates his keeping informed regarding the progress in the classrooms.

A factor that materially affects the principal's contacts with classroom work is that modern organization of learning materials is mainly in unit or large-topic form rather than in daily lessons. Even where fundamental skills are involved, these are usually taught in connection with large, socialized units of learning. Consequently the principal entering the room without previous orientation is at something of a loss as to the background and current stage of progress of the unit. A means of insuring this orientation in a way economical and effective for both teacher and principal is for the teacher to place in the principal's box her teaching outline or overview for the unit being undertaken with her notes on the progress of the unit from time to time. She may also utilize a copy of the class "log" of the unit for this purpose. Thus the principal may not only keep informed of the progress of the classes, but he may also be able to evaluate the work in terms of classwork principles, co-ordination with other areas of the school's program, and with the over-all principles and objectives of the school's educational council as well.

DEVELOPING STAFF INTEREST AND PRIDE IN THE SCHOOL

To be a worthy leader of teachers, the principal early senses the need for staff interest in, and loyalty to, their individual school as a worthy and outstanding institution in the community. Here again the educational program is the determining factor.

Professional pride and loyalty for the school cannot be attained without intelligence regarding the total school and its total program. The only way this can be attained by individual members of the staff is for all of them to become students of their school's mission. In other words, the principal must stimulate them, with his aid, to develop what may be termed "school sense." Just as they expect the principal to be sentient

of the teacher's work, they must learn to gain at least a small measure of the way a principal looks at the school and its work.

Another matter connected with pride in the school's work is a sense of the individual teacher's great influence on the standing of the school in the eyes of the community. The principal should lead her to appreciate how much not only her professional skill, but also her friendliness to pupils and parents, her dress, her demeanor, and her actions about the school and community affect the school's public relations. This need not mean stuffiness of conduct, but only wholesome personal interest and professional consideration as she carries on her daily work.

Finally, the principal must lead teachers to realize that they should, as people in other professions and vocations, expect a certain amount of "grief" in the course of their work. They should realize that problems in pupil management and other areas of the school work are actually their "bread and butter" as much as are the satisfactions that greatly outweigh these difficulties. Difficulties, too, they must be led to sense, are breeders of good morale. Teachers, in fact, may later recall these as landmarks in the career of their school as teachers and principal worked together in consistently improving personnel relationships.

SUMMARY

Each teacher must be considered as potentially capable of professional improvement until found otherwise; that is, it must not be concluded that teachers are incompetent until they have been found to be incapable of improvement. Many principals consider teachers unprofessional when the fault may lie with the principal himself. He may not, for example, recognize the difference between professional and unprofessional qualities; he may not challenge the potential powers of his teachers. To challenge his teachers professionally, the principal must know each teacher and her needs; he must know those who have developed professionally, those who have not, and

what particular phases of professional development need to be stressed. *He must organize his school as a training institution for the professional development of the members of his staff.* Good teachers may leave the service at the end of each year, and new teachers enter who require special training. The principal is, therefore, constantly engaged in training his teachers. He cannot compel his teachers to grow professionally, but through wise counsel and the use of worthy incentives he can create in them the desire to improve: He must consistently supply the elements of professional growth.

The individual teacher must be led to view her professional improvement as a personal responsibility. Personal responsibility acts as an impelling force once the teacher can be aroused to a consciousness of its importance. Guidance must be given by the principal through conferences with the individual teachers with respect to their personal responsibilities. The best way to discover how a teacher will respond to responsibility is to impose it. Usually the response will indicate whether she will chafe under it. The principal must lead in planning the program of professional improvement with the idea of utilizing every available asset of his staff for purposes of improvement. No trait should be allowed to go unchallenged or unused in any teacher; and the better the principal can utilize the assets of the teaching staff, the better and more rapid will be the professional improvement of the individual members.

As a means of interesting teachers in professional improvement, they must be made conscious of traits and trait actions that are essential to successful teaching. The elementary school principal may supply lists of essential traits and trait activities to his teachers and make them the basis of discussions in conferences. He must induce self-analysis on the part of his teachers, not merely talk abstractly about traits and trait actions. Guidance in developing desirable traits is necessary for the teacher. If a teacher, for example, wishes help in developing self-possession, the principal must know enough about the elements of this trait to give the teacher specific aid in its develop-

ment. Study of the data concerning traits offers the best approach to the solution of the problem.

In order to interest teachers in a personal program of professional growth and improvement, they must be made acquainted with the activities that are performed by successful teachers and the training provided in the development of the activities with which they are unacquainted or in which they are untrained. It is important that the teacher acquire a broad understanding of the duties of her position and essential that any fallow abilities be developed. If a teacher is lacking in a given ability, the principal is responsible for seeing that the ability is developed, if possible. The teacher must become critical of her own work; she must be led to realize the difference between successful and unsuccessful teaching.

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Administering Pupil Personnel

THE BASIC FUNCTION OF THE ELEMENTARY school is to work with children to the end that every child will be guided to have the experiences that will make him the best possible citizen at every stage of his development. It is of primary importance, therefore, that the school make provisions to meet the needs of its pupils. The elementary school must provide such personnel services in order that pupil needs will be met both in securing individual development and living and also group development and living. Every child must be given an opportunity to learn (1) to maintain good physical, mental, and emotional health; (2) to use all the tools of communication; (3) to get along with others; (4) to share responsibilities; and (5) to make his contribution to the welfare of his fellow citizens.

The task of serving pupil personnel assumes tremendous importance when one considers the number of children who must be served. In the United States there are approximately 23,000,000 children enrolled in elementary schools. Because birth rates have increased in recent years, the numbers to be cared for by the elementary schools have steadily advanced and will probably continue to advance for some years to come. All recent surveys indicate the need for increased facilities for

educating elementary school children. Furthermore, as larger percentages of children of elementary school age are given the opportunity of going to school, the diversity of their needs will add to the work of the school and will make it necessary to provide increased personnel services.

GROUPING PUPILS

Early practices. In the early elementary schools of Colonial times, instruction was largely an individual matter. The idea of sorting pupils into groups for purposes of improving instruction is a development of more recent years. At first the sorting of pupils was based on the fact that the future careers of the pupils would be different. Children, either through family circumstances and background or the display of exceptional scholastic ability in early years, were selected for the learned professions and were sent to tutors and subsequently to Latin grammar schools. Those who seemed destined, on the other hand, to live by manual labor, went to the rudimentary school. Academies established later offered opportunities to those who could not or did not care to qualify for entrance to the Latin grammar school. Crude methods of grouping children thus existed by means of different institutions: dame schools; primary, writing, and grammar schools; academies; and Latin grammar schools. Between 1840 and 1890 most public elementary schools were organized to include eight grades, and pupils were grouped according to their ability to meet grade requirements. Today, in addition to sorting pupils according to grades, other methods are utilized to obtain finer classifications for the purpose of improving instruction. Moreover, the introduction of kindergarten and nursery school classes on the one hand and the junior high school on the other have added further changes in grouping pupils within school systems.

Whatever type of organization is employed, the choice of the plan of organization should be made on the basis of the program to be carried out and the pupils to be served. Whatever divisions or units make up the framework of a given

school or school system, and irrespective of the grades that are grouped together in different units, the groupings should be fixed in terms of pupil need rather than because of tradition.¹ No single pattern of organization of schools is clearly dominant in the country today.

Other questions of vital consideration in grouping pupils are whether or not the grouping (1) encourages maximum provision for meeting individual differences, (2) takes advantage of the competencies of teachers, (3) gives teachers sufficient freedom of action, (4) meets special needs of pupils, and (5) makes for harmonious and efficient work on the part of all concerned.

Current policies and practices. According to a recent survey² made by the Research Division of the National Education Association by questionnaire, returns from 1,598 school systems reveal that departmentalization is practiced in a bare majority of the cities (51 per cent). A considerably higher per cent of the cities report that the practice of departmentalizing is "on the way out" than report that it is "on the way in." Some school systems and many individual schools group pupils according to ability. There is no significant trend apparent in respect to the use of ability grouping. The use of the platoon organization, widely advocated some years ago and quite extensively used, seems definitely on the way out as a means of grouping pupils. More recently the elimination of grade lines and the classifying of pupils into broader school units, or divisions, instead of into traditional grades, has been developed in increasing numbers of schools and school systems. Grade lines have usually been eliminated in the lower portion of the elementary school, and there is a definite tendency to extend the plan farther upward into the pattern of school organization. Wherever the framework of school organization includes ungraded classes, the trend seems definitely toward greater

¹ "Trends in City School Organization 1938-1948," *NEA Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXVII, No. 1 (Washington, D. C., February, 1949), p. 38.

² *Ibid.*, pp. 18-22.

use of the arrangement. Groups classified separately for remedial instruction, particularly in the subjects of reading and arithmetic, are widely used; and the trend seems to be definite for the use of such groupings. The trend toward more individualized instruction is also strong, and its popularity increases somewhat with the size of the city; the same is true with regard to the use of class periods of indefinite length.

Class size. In the grouping of pupils in an elementary school, consideration must be given to the size of the group or class. Under the Lancastrian system, classes were huge in size; in certain divisions of the platoon school, classes are unusually large; and even in many traditionally graded schools, the number of pupils in a group is too large to permit efficient instruction. In general the tendency in most elementary schools today is to decrease the size of the individual group, and this tendency is most noticeable in the larger cities of the United States. The consensus of opinion of school authorities seems to be that classes in elementary schools should not have more than thirty pupils and probably as few as twenty-five pupils.

The grouping and sorting of pupils in a school and the size of the group are necessary considerations because schools must educate their pupils in groups and because such groups must be organized in a way that will eliminate as far as possible extreme variations in the pupils. The best elementary schools group pupils on the basis of a number of factors rather than relying upon one single phase of the child's life such as chronological age or mental ability. Among the factors usually considered are the following: chronological age; social maturity; mental ability; previous grade placement; results of achievement tests; neighborhood and community traditions; and the nature, ability, and experience of the teacher. Whenever the total picture of the child's development is considered and all the factors of his growth are taken into account, such questions as the size of classes or the form of the school organization become matters of less importance than they were considered in the older traditional school.

SERVICES TO PUPILS

Necessary pupil personnel services. Operating a school for effective education requires that attention be given to certain pupil personnel services. Among these are several that deal with the child's physical welfare. A child must be physically present in school if he is to derive maximum benefit. This implies regularity in attendance and calls attention to such services as census taking; checking irregular attendance; finding the causes of nonattendance; and issuing work permits when a child must leave school and seek gainful employment. Another service dealing with the child's physical welfare is concerned with a number of health problems. Provisions must be made for physical examinations, immunizations, quarantines, and general safety education. Such services require that the teacher's work be supplemented by that of doctors, nurses, and dentists. Often, too, supplementary lunches must be provided, and usually a school lunch program is initiated.

Other necessary pupil personnel services deal with the child's psychological needs. Among these may be noted the school's testing and measuring program to determine intelligence, achievement, and personality ratings. Other services of this nature deal with the grading of pupils, their promotion and placement, and the measurement and evaluation of their progress.

There is also growing recognition of the importance of meeting needs in the field of training the emotions, developing proper attitudes, and diagnosing emotional and personality difficulties. All of the above services must be supplemented by adequately kept records that give a full picture of the total personality of the individual child.

Needless to say, all pupil personnel services involve a co-operative undertaking on the part of the pupils, teachers, other school workers, parents, patrons, and the citizens of the community in which the school is located. The successful operation of such a co-operative undertaking requires a high

level of teamwork within the school and between the school, the home, the church, and all other community agencies and forces.

Pupil attendance. Provision must be made to insure the attendance of pupils in school. Most school systems provide attendance divisions as a part of their departments of pupil welfare, and such bureaus supply attendance supervisors, and frequently school social workers or counselors of various kinds. Such departments usually have charge of all child accounting, of attendance, suspensions, court cases, of the school census, and sometimes of issuing the work permits and age certificates. Teachers and principals must co-operate with such workers in the administration of pupil attendance. If the sentiment for education is strong in the community and if parents readily and fully support the school in its efforts to secure regular attendance, principals and teachers will have little trouble with problems of attendance. However, if the opposite condition exists, the task will be greater and will call for greater efforts on the part of the school, particularly in the task of improving the community attitude toward school attendance. The best school workers consider irregular attendance and truancy as symptom pictures of underlying conditions and strive to ascertain the causes and secure their removal.

Plans for handling attendance problems in any particular school will vary. Attendance work differs in different cities and in different states. Compulsory school attendance laws vary, and the typical laws usually require full-time attendance of all children from seven to sixteen years of age. Every school must adjust its attendance work to the conditions that obtain in the school and community, but certain methods are always applicable. In the first place, the school should provide for an adequate, accurate, and speedy check on the attendance of every pupil in the school. The school membership should be checked against the names on the census lists at the beginning of each term of school. Transfers of pupils from one school to another need particular attention. Changing schools is difficult at best

for pupils without complicating the problem by failure to change from one school to another promptly.

In administering pupil attendance, the school will find certain procedures helpful. In addition to providing adequate machinery to check attendance accurately and quickly, blank forms, slips, and attendance record cards are needed to assure accuracy and speed. Provision must also be made for pupils who return after an absence, and definite procedures should be developed and made known not only to pupils and teachers but to the parents as well. Principals and teachers should practice an attitude of reasonableness toward attendance and punctuality and remember that the machinery of attendance is only a means to an end and that results will often depend more on the attitude assumed toward promptness and regularity than upon compulsory enforcement. The schools should be so organized and administered that children will desire to come. If the school work is made interesting and challenging to the boys and girls, they will prefer to be in school rather than elsewhere.

When all other means fail, the school may be compelled to use legal means to keep children in school. Before court action is attempted, pupils should be given every other opportunity, such as changes in placement and transfer to another school. Some large cities provide special classes and schools for attendance problems and acute truant cases, and the regular schools should use such special facilities early enough to save the child from a court record if at all possible. When necessary, and when other means have failed, court action should be initiated. The actual court work is usually done by attendance officers, but it is always advisable for the principal or some other school representative to be present at the hearing.

Causes of nonattendance. The reasons usually given for the nonattendance of pupils in school are illness, work, home conditions, school conditions, the weather, and truancy. The personal illness of pupils and of their families account for most pupil absences. Studies of the types of illness resulting in ab-

sence show that respiratory infections lead all other causes.³ Work as a cause of nonattendance is another frequent occurrence, especially in communities with agricultural interests centered in some particular crop. School social workers also find through home visitation that parental indifference with respect to school attendance is an important cause of pupil absence. School conditions, as determined by the preparation and experience of the teacher, appear to exercise a stronger influence on absence than the character of the building, equipment, and grounds. *Such evidence as is available concerning the relation of sex to absence is conflicting in character; however, boys have more truancy than girls. Pupils six to nine years of age have more one-day absences and also more longer absences than older pupils.*⁴ Distance as a rule bears only a slight relationship to absence although in individual cases it may exercise a strong causal influence on tardiness.

The school and its workers should study the causes of absence and tardiness and strive to overcome the causes rather than consume school time in the mere administration of individual cases. A good program of attendance must be administered on the basis of the findings of a scientific study of the problems of attendance.

Health services. Pupil personnel services must include provisions for health supervision and health and safety education. Such services should be made more effective in order to protect the health of the elementary school child and to give him a better understanding of the principles and practices of social and community hygiene.⁵ Such a program should include health instruction in schools and health education of parents in methods of conserving both physical and mental health. Through a well-rounded health program in the elementary school, the community can provide the services necessary for

³ *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. XXXI, No. 8 (April, 1950), p. 375.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 375.

⁵ *White House Conference on Children in a Democracy*, Final Report, Pub. 272 (Washington, D. C., Superintendent of Documents, 1940), p. 366.

adequate supervision of the health of school children, including mental health services. The program of the school should include health instruction by teachers, a health-permitting school environment and program, recreational facilities conducive to promoting health, and health supervision of teachers and other school employees, with special emphasis on the early discovery of diseases and personality defects in teachers.* Many of the school health services should be provided by the local health department or by the health department of the school system and should include a thorough physical examination of all children on entrance to school and at two- or three-year intervals thereafter by competent physicians and dentists, aided by the school nurse or the public health nurse who serves the school.[†] The services of the school should make provision for immunization for diphtheria and vaccination for smallpox when necessary and not provided by the family. There should also be provision for the early detection of communicable diseases, thorough tests of hearing and vision, and means for remedial measures when necessary; and special medical examinations of children taking part in competitive athletics.

In conducting the health services enumerated above, regular routine procedures should be developed. Blank forms for reports of examinations by doctors, dentists, and nurses, if not provided otherwise, should be made by the school. Such forms should provide a report for the parents of the child as well as records for the school. Schedules for giving the examinations, immunizations, and the like should be made; and the schedule should be reported to the home as well as the school personnel who are concerned. Needless to say, the school records should provide for more than recording the results of the examination; because, unless a record is kept of remedial and corrective measures taken as a result of the examination, no well-rounded health program is possible.

* U. S. Dept. of Labor, *Standards of Child Health, Education, and Social Welfare, Children's Bureau, Publication No. 287* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1912), p. 8.

[†] *Ibid.*, p. 7.

Quarantine regulations must be followed by the school in administering its pupil personnel; otherwise the school will become a hotbed for incubating all kinds of childhood diseases. Such regulations differ in different states and communities, and the administrator of a school should become cognizant of the health laws and regulations that apply to his community and follow them explicitly.

Health instruction should be designed to result in good health practices, such as the proper care of teeth, sleeping in properly ventilated rooms, and eating the proper kinds of foods in balanced proportions.

Provision must be made not only for proper health measures as far as the physical health of the pupils is concerned but also for caring for the mental health of the pupils of the school. Mental health is of as much importance as physical health. It has grown in importance as a result of the discoveries and teachings of the science of psychiatry. These discoveries and teachings have shown that many of the school failures and most of the problem cases in learning and behavior can be traced to the mental health of the child or of the adults with whom he has had contacts. Schools should utilize the facilities available in caring for problem cases; they should call upon local child guidance clinics, psychiatrists, and psychologists when occasion warrants the use of such experts. School social workers and counselors are needed in the school's program for mental hygiene. They can interpret the school to the home and explain the home to the teachers and administrators within the school.

Provisions for safety. Closely allied to making provisions for the health of school children is that of providing for their safety from accidents while at school and on the way to and from school. In the first place, schools should be of fire-resistive construction; and heating, lighting, and all other equipment should meet the most rigid specifications to prevent accidents. Regulations to be followed in case of fire or other catastrophe should be developed, understood, and practiced by all em-

ployees and pupils. Fire drills should be held regularly, at least twice a month, and conducted in a manner that will evacuate the school building safely and quickly. Fire alarm systems should be kept in working order and frequently inspected and tested.

Playground equipment needs particular attention in order to prevent accidents. It should be kept in good repair and regularly inspected and tested. Children should be taught its proper use and should use it under proper supervision. The very small and the larger children should not use playgrounds and playground equipment at the same time. Shop equipment in household arts and sciences and in home mechanics laboratories, as well as gymnasium apparatus, must also be considered from the standpoint of safety.

Hazardous street crossings on the way to and from school should be supervised. In this connection the school officials should co-operate with traffic officials in working out the best routing of children between home and school.

The safety patrol is an organization through which pupils in the school participate in protecting their fellows. The members of an efficient safety patrol not only help conduct small children safely across hazardous streets, but also influence pupil behavior on the way to and from school and on the playground.*

School lunches. In many schools provision must be made for serving school lunches. This is necessary whenever large numbers of children cannot return to their homes for the lunch hour because of distance, or when the school is located in an area where children must be given supplementary food allotments to that regularly received at home. The school lunchroom and its operation becomes a problem of importance in the operation of the school for effective education. If the child does not secure the proper food, he is likely to become a problem in nutrition and therefore a problem in education.

* See Chapter VI.

School lunches should be simple. There should be at least one hot dish and milk or hot chocolate, served under efficient supervision in a well-equipped place in the school. The school must arrange for the supervision of the pupils during the time of the meal and for the rest of the time spent at school during the lunch hour recess. Often older pupils or the safety patrol can be used to help care for the younger children during the lunch period.

Services to meet psychological needs. Pupil personnel services should be provided in every school to meet the mental or psychological needs of children. The many problems of testing and measuring intelligence and achievement in a school; grading, promoting, and classifying pupils; and appraising and evaluating their progress are illustrative of the services that must be given if the school is to be operated effectively.

The school must be thought of as a laboratory of living and learning in which the fundamental abilities and skills—reading, writing, arithmetic, and the like—along with other abilities and skills that the developing society in which children live will require of them for effective citizenship, may be acquired. To neglect the mental needs of the pupil personnel of a school is to defeat the primary purpose for which schools were organized.

EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENT

Measurement of ability is essential. Pupil achievement in school is conditioned by ability and effort. If the ability is unknown, it is difficult to evaluate either achievement or effort. Furthermore, no true evaluation of a pupil's progress can be made without an appraisal of his ability. The school, therefore, must first of all measure the mental ability of its pupils.

In some school systems, mental appraisal of all pupils is undertaken by the central administration; and the results are sent to the school. In other systems, the responsibility rests with the local school unit. In the former case, the local school must organize the data for use in administering its pupil personnel;

in the latter, the school must secure the measuring instruments, administer them, and then organize the results for use in the school.

The tests for the measurement of mental ability are of two kinds: those designed for group testing and those to be administered to individual pupils. The latter are more accurate but require a greater expenditure of time and effort and greater skill in administration. The school will usually make use of the individual type of mental test only for younger children or for problem cases when an accurate diagnosis of the mental ability is necessary. Such tests are usually administered in large school systems by a psychologist attached to the child study bureau or psychological clinic of the superintendent's office. In schools in which the services of experts in mental measurement are not available, the principal can select a capable teacher who can be trained in the administration of individual tests. The teacher so selected must then be released from teaching duties whenever it is necessary to give individual psychological examinations.

Group intelligence tests may be administered by the principal or members of the teaching staff to groups of forty to fifty pupils at a time, provided the directions for administration are studied, understood, and carefully followed. The results of such tests, although not so valid as individual psychological examinations, are of value in the classification of pupils, in the diagnosis of difficulties, and in the appraisal of achievement. To secure greater accuracy for the group test, it is often advisable to administer two forms of the test at different times and then average the results.

Examinations. In the past the most commonly used device for measuring the achievement of pupils has been the conventional school examination consisting of a few written questions based on the content of the subject matter fields in which a pupil's achievement was to be measured. The questions were usually prepared by teachers whose ideas of the outcomes to be measured were often obscure, if the questions used are true

indexes of the outcomes desired. Too often, in the conventional examination, the mere memorization of factual materials by the pupils rather than reflective thinking was emphasized. Too frequently teachers evaluated pupil achievement by percentage of recall of names, dates, and figures, rather than by the ability of the pupil to analyze and organize materials, express discriminating judgments, and form generalizations regarding the materials studied.

Studies, in general, of the character of the conventional written examinations have resulted in much adverse criticism. Some educators have urged the complete abolishing of this type of examination. Objections are based largely on the character of the questions and abuses in the administration of the examinations. The subjective character of the scoring of the examination papers has also been questioned, even derided. The extreme variation exhibited in the evaluation of conventional examination papers by different readers and in re-evaluation by the same reader has caused many students of education to question the use of such examinations in evaluating a pupil's achievement.

Certain values in the conventional written examination warrant the continuation of its use, provided its defects are eliminated and its administration is improved. At its best, the conventional examination can be easily and readily adapted to any subject, or to the needs of a particular class; it can be used to measure achievement in small units of subject matter; it throws pupils on their own resources when the questions are properly prepared; it provides training in analysis, organization, and generalizations; it can be made to challenge the thought processes of the pupil; and it has no rival as a means of testing the ability of a pupil to give free expression to his ideas.

If a school makes use of the conventional examination in determining pupils' achievement, it is necessary that improvement in the examination be made. This means that principals and teachers must work together in the preparation of the

questions in order to improve the examination. The answers to be expected must also be considered, and the elements weighted. Means must be found to do the scoring with the *idea of reducing to the minimum the personal equation of the scorer*. Such improvements are not likely to result unless the staff of the school studies the construction, administration, and scoring of the conventional examination.

The question as an instrument of instruction. The early conception of the recitation as a period for testing the learning of the pupil is no doubt responsible for the development of the oral quiz. This conception of teaching resulted frequently in the quiz becoming an end instead of a means in education. With some teachers the quiz came to be regarded as a synonym of teaching. This fallacious notion of teaching has resulted in gross misuses of the question as an instrument of instruction. Some teachers ask no questions and others ask as many as a hundred or more in a forty-minute class period, and sometimes as much as eight tenths of the school time has been spent by a teacher in asking questions and hearing answers.

Teachers should use the oral quiz judiciously. In stimulating thinking, in discovering faulty assimilation, and in creating situations designed to enhance appreciation, the oral quiz still has a place in instruction; but as a means of evaluating pupil achievement, it is at best but a crude device of the past that is justified only in tutoring.

Standardized achievement tests. New types of examinations have been devised and standardized and can be purchased as educational supplies. Workers in elementary schools should have extensive knowledge of such tests in order that they may wisely select those that are needed in measuring the work of pupils.

In the selection of these test materials, the principal and his teachers must first determine what abilities are to be measured and the purpose of the measurement. Certain tests have been developed for diagnostic purposes, others for prognostic purposes, and still others for use in general surveys of achieve-

ment. There are also tests devised for a combination of purposes. Teachers and principal may utilize a battery of standardized tests for surveying the grade placement of pupils or for comparing their achievements with known standards or norms. A testing program should not be undertaken merely for the sake of testing; it should have a definite purpose.

In selecting standardized tests as instruments for measuring the achievement of pupils in various school subjects, several criteria should be considered. Among such criteria, in the order of their importance, are (a) validity, (b) reliability, (c) objectivity, (d) administrability, and (e) cost and mechanical makeup. The validity of a test refers to whether the test measures what it purports to measure. Unless a test has a high degree of validity, it is worthless, no matter how well it may measure some other variable. The reliability of a test represents the accuracy with which a test consistently measures whatever it does measure; that is, a test with a high coefficient of reliability gives the same results no matter when it is used. Objectivity of tests refers to the fact that they are free from subjective influences of examiners so that different examiners will get the same results under similar conditions. A test should be easy to administer, its instructions should be complete for examiner and pupils, its use should fit into the ordinary school time schedule, and it should be easy to score. When a test meets all of these conditions, then cost and mechanical makeup should be considered. Finally, it is wise to use tests for which equivalent forms can be secured.

In any program for measuring pupils' achievements, it is necessary to understand certain statistical terms and procedures. Teachers and principals should be able to make correct frequency distributions of the scores of a class on a given test, calculate the median and mean, and determine the extent of variability and the expression of relationships. Terms such as median, mean, mode, range, quartile, percentile rank, standard deviation, and correlation coefficient should be in common use between school workers when using standardized tests as in-

struments to determine the achievement and progress of pupils in the work of a modern elementary school.

Organizing school groups. Mass instruction necessitates some method of grading or classification. Average class size in cities in the United States is between 30.3 and 32 pupils per teacher,* with cities of the first class having the larger median average size. These classes are organized either as single-teacher classes, departmental organizations, platoon plans, individual instruction plans, or nongraded groups. Irrespective of the type of organization employed, most cities place final responsibility for daily schedules with the teacher, although in many cases schedules are made co-operatively by teachers and principals, and in some cases pupils and parents participate in schedule making.¹⁰ On the other hand, the time allotted to the different subjects is often determined by the central office. In some cities the allotments are expected to be adhered to somewhat rigidly, whereas in other cities the allotments are more flexible and teachers are allowed to vary them with respect to the needs of individual children or classes or groups¹¹ and the time of the month or year. Teachers should be encouraged to plan for the use of the school time to build a program that provides for the best all-around development of the particular grade and the individual child within the grade group.

The main purpose of grading children in a school is to meet adequately and economically their educational needs in the group that must be cared for by one teacher. Various plans have been used. Ability groupings constitute one approach that is commonly used, and any system that provides for advancement from one grade level to another is based upon some conception of homogeneity. However, it is difficult to maintain ability groups, and they may be organized only in large schools where sufficient numbers of children of approximately the same grade level are found.

* *Organization and Supervision of Elementary Education in 100 Cities*. United States Office of Education, Bulletin No. 11 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1919), p. 35.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 29-30.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 31.

Providing for the adjustment of pupils to grade placement twice a year instead of only once greatly increased the flexibility of the promotional system and effected economy in the case of failing pupils, because the latter would have but one-half year of work to make up, in case of failure, instead of the whole year as under the annual system of promotion. Still greater flexibility in promotion was sought by the use of the quarter system in which the waste of time caused by failure is again reduced by one half. This plan, it may be noted, fitted in very well with the all-year school, because a ten-week summer term forms a time unit equal to one of the four regular quarters. However, it has been found that promotions more frequent than annual are difficult to administer because of the reorganization required. The tendency at present in both small and large school systems is to promote classes only annually and individual pupils at any time promotion is justifiable.

Schools differ widely in regard to policies concerning promotion. A recent study¹² indicates that some cities have no non-promotions whereas in other cities they may be as high as 14 per cent for some grades. The median nonpromotion rate in larger cities is 5.3 per cent and in smaller cities 3.5 per cent.¹³ The best thought in the matter seems to be to reduce non-promotion to a minimum in the elementary school.

Promotion in primary grades. Not until recent years has the significance of the primary division in plans for improving grading and promotion in the elementary school been sensed by school administrators, although the heavy rate of failure at the primary level has long been a problem. Innovations in promotions in primary grades usually fall into one of two classes: (1) the procedure in which pupils remain with the same teacher throughout all stages of the primary work from preprimary through the second or third grade, or (2) the plan whereby the entire primary span is broken into a great many consecutive learning levels and pupils are permitted to advance

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 40.

¹³ *Ibid.*

flexibly from group to group as their mental maturity and reading progress warrant. Both plans tend to break down the *annual or semiannual promotion ideas*. The first plan emphasizes the advantages of the knowledge of a pupil's needs and capacities that a teacher will accumulate through having him during the entire primary period. The second plan stresses the advantage of the teacher's having a class highly homogeneous with respect to reading ability. Both plans are indicative of a movement to introduce flexibility into promotions and to fit the school better to the individual child.

Special and double promotions. In many school systems special or extra promotions are utilized to provide for the individual needs of pupils who are doing work of exceptional quality. One of the most common forms of the extra promotion is the double promotion, which advances the pupil two regular stages in the course instead of one. For example, a pupil who is completing Grade 4A will be advanced to Grade 5A, instead of to 5B, which would be a normal promotion in normal cases. The extra promotion, which advances a pupil a full grade in the course during the semester, is usually designated as a special promotion. The trial promotion, on the other hand, may be classified as the promotion that cares for the pupil whose progress is not altogether satisfactory. It is often utilized to reduce failures by giving the pupil a promotion conditionally, on the assumption that he may do as well in the next grade as he would do by repeating the work of the grade just completed. The conditions imposed usually include the provision that the pupil will later be demoted in the event that he *does not profit by his conditional promotion*. It is generally established that the types of special promotion indicated are beneficial when properly administered, and should be employed to insure greater flexibility in school systems in which annual and semiannual promotions are practiced.

Subject promotion. Promotion by subject, long prevalent in high schools and immediately adopted by junior high schools on their establishment, has also been tried at the elementary

school level. The fallacy of requiring a child to repeat all subjects when he has failed in only one, or two, is readily apparent. Administrative inconvenience has often been used as an excuse for not providing for subject promotion in the elementary grades. However, in places where the plan has been tried, administrative provisions for facilitating the promotion of pupils by subjects have been recommended. These provisions include the scheduling of all recitations in a given subject at a given hour, selecting subject-matter tests for the studies in which subject promotion is permitted, and classifying children according to their grade ability in the subjects designated on the basis of test results.

However, promotion by subjects in the elementary school is open to question. By so promoting, the interrelationship of many phases of academic growth is thrown out of balance. The child too often neglects some of the learning experiences essential to his normal growth by overemphasizing his special interests, and many teachers become too subject-matter minded.¹⁴

Summer school as an aid to promotion. Summer schools are frequently maintained to assist accelerated or retarded pupils in making adjustments to the school organization. Large and medium-sized cities very generally maintain vacation schools to permit pupils to make up, during a short summer term, credit in subjects in which they have failed during the regular school year or which will make possible a better individual adjustment to the school course. In some cities the principal of an elementary school is granted large discretionary powers with respect not only to the making up in summer school of failures incurred by pupils during the regular year but also to the granting of advanced credit for work done in the summer term. The principal may recommend that pupils enter vacation classes to make up failures, that they be passed on the condition that they carry the work satisfactorily during the summer session, or that pupils be given advanced credit on the basis of

¹⁴ George C. Kyte, *The Principal at Work* (Boston, Massachusetts: Ginn and Company, 1941), p. 154.

superior work done during the eight-week vacation term. In any event, the value of summer sessions in accelerating individual pupils and in providing flexibility in promotion is very generally accepted.

TRAINING THE EMOTIONS

Recognition of emotional factors. Whether emotion has been unduly ignored in the stress that schools lay upon the acquisition of knowledge and the development of skills is a question facing the elementary school today. Many educators believe that it is as important for the school to make provision for the training of emotions, feelings, and attitudes of pupils as it is to give training in the ordinary school subjects. Many educators believe also that the achievement of emotional maturity by pupils should be among the major aims of education, but they differ widely as to what is meant by "emotional maturity."

The question of what the school does about the emotions, feelings, and attitudes of children is directly concerned with the problems of educational methodology. There are those who believe that it seriously limits a child's personality development if the school or the teacher directs and chooses the experiences that the child is to have; some believe that there should be no unpleasant disciplinary measures to secure reasonable behavior; others believe that children should never experience failure or deprivation in anything that they wish to do or have; and still others believe that complete freedom, full self-expression, and continuous success may be dangerous both to personality unity and to effective social adjustment because they do not represent adequate evaluations of reality.¹⁵ Irrespective of how teachers and principals feel about such controversial questions, the issues are directly concerned with the methods to be used in schools and indicate the importance of giving consideration to the training of emotions, feelings, and attitudes.

Psychiatrists and psychologists agree that emotionally conditioned attitudes have an important place in determining both

¹⁵ Daniel A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1938), p. 8.

the personality and the character of a person.¹⁴ Children and adults judge behavior on the basis of emotionally conditioned attitudes and usually make choices according to how they feel about the alternatives. The emotions, feelings, and attitudes usually supply the bases upon which goals of behavior both social and personal are built. All teachers know that it is the undertone of emotion, feeling, or attitude that is always present in every classroom that facilitates or retards the assimilation of meaningful experiences.

- 6 Teachers and psychologists know that motivation vitalizes learning, that the interest and enthusiasm of the learner intensifies learning, and that satisfactions must accompany effective learning. A child's feelings about members of his group, his conception of his own role in the group, and his concern about the way the group feels toward him strongly influence his behavior in the learning situation. Similarly the teacher-pupil personal and social relationships influence a child's learning. A pupil learns more readily when he accepts the teacher's leadership in his progress and feels that the teacher has sympathy and encouragement for his work. Rejection of a teacher's leadership and a feeling that the teacher is uninterested, unsympathetic, and discouraging has the opposite effect and may effectively block learning.

All of the above call attention to the fact that the modern elementary school must be concerned with the emotions, feelings, and attitudes that it builds up in its pupil personnel. Unless there is an atmosphere or emotional tone in which learning can take place, the purpose of the school is defeated. Schools must be concerned with the strength and direction of the desires that are developed or inhibited by the educational process.

How schools can contribute in training emotions. Too often schools still involve too much restriction of movement in active children. Seats are uncomfortable, rooms poorly ventilated and badly lighted, and rules and assignments are rigid and arbitrary. In contrast, schools should be made less restrictive, more

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 46.

comfortable, and greatly enlivened and enriched in their educative processes.

The emotions of children, when strong, must be given careful consideration by school people, and a certain amount of emotional re-education should be undertaken. The most important procedure for preventing strong emotion is to avoid the stimulus or situation that evokes it, and by practicing relaxation to treat the nervous conditions and muscular contractions that accompany the emotional state.

Teachers must recognize that, when strong unpleasant emotions express themselves in antisocial ways, they are evidence that something is wrong in the life of the individual. Consequently, educational procedures should be developed that will lessen the incidence of delinquent and pathological behavior. Schools should offer children a challenge rather than the "soft" pedagogy of letting them do as they wish.¹⁷ Schools must develop procedures for identifying children whose patterns of emotional behavior are not acceptable and then provide experiences that will stimulate the development of patterns of emotional behavior that are acceptable, patterns that will help maintain morale, relieve tensions, and help develop a mature sense of values and loyalties. The best method of maturing children is for the school to provide them with situations in which they can work out behavior that will be satisfying to their own needs and at the same time socially acceptable. The school must offer experiences that will reveal the world as it is and that will orient the child in the physical, social, and spiritual realities of life. Children must be helped to organize their experiences into generalizations, attitudes, and values; and the evaluation of pupil progress should be made in terms of personality development rather than limited to an increase in specific knowledges and skills.

The old saying that children learn more by example than by precept is indicative of the importance of school personnel in determining what schools can do to train emotions, feelings, and attitudes. The relationships between teachers and pupils

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 93.

not only affect the learning of the child but in a greater degree determine the influences that the school can have on the development of the personality of the child. Nowhere, except in the home, is the effect of an adult personality upon a child greater than it is in the schoolroom. Teachers are not mere machines to make available educative experiences to children; they are an active part of the child's school environment. Often the intellectual aspects of school are secondary in importance to the personal relationships between child and teacher. Studies have shown that teachers are best liked by pupils for their helpfulness in facilitating learning, and for such personality characteristics as cheerfulness, good nature, sense of humor, friendliness, fairness, and sympathetic understanding. Conversely, teachers are not liked by pupils because they are cross, sarcastic, never smiling, aloof, or intolerant, or lose their tempers. The foregoing statements suggest that schools, teachers, and administrators alike must study pupils' experiences with the school personnel and that the personal relationships into which the child enters should be regarded as a part of the school's planned curriculum. Mental hygiene clinics are finding that the personal relationships of children in school are often damaging to the mental health of some children and suggest that much more attention be given to this aspect of the curriculum.

One reason why schools do not provide children with the experiences they need to develop healthy emotional personalities is that there is an overemphasis upon linguistic learning, and because verbal symbols are substituted for sensation, perception, observation, and activities with regard to life's events.¹⁸ The development of visual and auditory aids, the use of visits to places of interest in the community, and the introduction of more concrete experiences into the curriculum are steps in the right direction. In this connection there is need for giving more importance to aesthetic experiences of children. More should be done to use the aesthetic arts as vehicles for the expression of personal experiences of children. Music,

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 218.

art, drama, and dancing can be used to let the child express what he feels and cannot put in writing. Aesthetic expression can be used for the relaxation of emotional tensions and is a means for restoring or improving morale in individuals or groups. The examination of the aesthetic productions of children will often give the teacher an insight into children's emotional conflicts and personality needs through an understanding of their fantasy life. The arts will also help children understand their own culture, how that culture has grown out of the past, and how their own and contemporary cultures should be evaluated and appreciated.

All authorities agree that the role the family and home play in the development of a child's emotional life, personality, and patterns of behavior is of great significance. Consequently, when the school attempts to influence the emotions, feelings, and attitudes of children, there must be close co-operation between home and school. Parents must be taken into this phase of the educational process to a much greater degree than is usually done. This co-operation between home and school can be developed by the employment of school social workers and counselors to interpret home to school and school to home. Closer co-operation between community and school are also indicated if for no other reason than that the school may thereby become aware of conditions and forces in the community that affect the mental health, emotional life, and personality development of the children. Isolation and unreality on the part of the school with reference to the community in which the school is located is a serious problem in education. Mental health of school children will be much further advanced if the school becomes aware of its function in community living and will work with other community agencies, such as churches, social agencies, and health forces, to make the community more favorable for human beings as individuals and members of society.¹⁹

¹⁹Carson W. Ryan, *Mental Health Through Education* (New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1938), p. 304.

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Pupil management and control. Another service vitally concerned with pupil personnel is that of the proper discipline and control of pupils while in schools. It is directly related to all that has been written in this chapter about the physical, mental, and emotional welfare of pupils.

Schools differ in the ease with which pupils may be disciplined and controlled. Much depends upon the neighborhood, the attitude of parents, the economic and social conditions of the people, and the traditions of the school. Every principal and teacher will have occasion to discipline mischievous pupils for fighting, petty thefts, destruction of property, and perhaps sometimes serious delinquencies. However, wrongdoing on the part of pupils is seldom pathological. Many acts of children are mere annoyances; breaches of good conduct; and the result of ignorance, carelessness, or thoughtlessness. Criminal intent in the act is extremely rare.

The first problem in the administration of the school's control is to study the causes of the unruliness. Bad discipline and school behavior, like truancy, are symptoms of something wrong. They may be occasioned by poor teaching, bad personal relationships between teacher and pupils, subnormal home conditions, or poor neighbor patterns. The school must, therefore, understand the child and his background and the conditions within the community and school that affect the lives of the pupils.

The principal and teachers must strive to make the school self-disciplining, and they must strive to develop the art of self-control on the part of pupils. Emphasis should be placed on all normal learning experiences that contribute to effective and healthy adjustment of every child in the school. School control must be a co-operative effort on the part of principal, teachers, and pupils. There must be co-operative planning with *teachers and pupils and an agreement on policies and principles of control.* The roles of teacher and children alike are

essential in this co-operative enterprise. School discipline is merely social control within the school group.²⁹ School spirit becomes the essence of it and is revealed in the orderliness of the school. Pupil participation must be enlisted and used in the development of control. Through the organization of civic clubs, councils, school patrols, assemblies, and other forms of pupil participation, the spirit of the school can be changed. Teachers and principal should seek to make the discipline of the school valuable in teaching life's lessons. Pupils best acquire social control by having an opportunity to practice it in their own social groups. In handling individual cases of discipline, it must be remembered that the young have a strong sense of justice and fair play. Punishment should not be administered as such, but to inhibit repetition of undesirable acts. To permit teachers to use school work as punishment and thereby instill in pupils a dislike for work is a sure way of increasing rather than decreasing the disciplinary problems of the school. Threats, personal indignities, sarcasm, and ridicule have no place in school disciplinary measures, and they must be avoided. Demotion or failure as a disciplinary measure is likewise an evil to be shunned.

Particular attention must be given to the care of the building and its classrooms in determining standards of pupil conduct. Routine procedures in entering and leaving the building or the classrooms and in using corridors and stairs will help reduce misbehavior. The problems attendant upon the use of lavatories, washrooms, and other service rooms in the building need special attention to reduce incidents of bad discipline.

The matter of pupil control is another phase of good school operation in which there must be teamwork between parents and school authorities. Many problems of discipline originate in school and soon involve the home, and conversely much of the school's disciplinary work is a carry over of things that have happened to the child in the home. Because the co-operation

²⁹ W. R. Smith, *Constructive School Discipline* (Chicago: American Book Co., 1936), p. 41.

of school and home is necessary in many situations involving pupil management, definite procedures should be worked out and followed so that both parents and teachers may be informed on everything that has bearing on the case. Such co-operative efforts must be handled with sympathy, patience, poise, and tact by the school's representatives.

In administering a school, the aim should be to build up on the part of pupils and parents an interest in the school's work that will eliminate discipline as a separate factor. Well-motivated school work, the best teaching available, well-organized play and recreational facilities, proper pupil participation, good co-operative relations with parents, and wholesome attitudes by principal and teachers will tend to eliminate discipline and control as problems in school administration.

Pupil records. Good pupil personnel administration presupposes keeping complete and accurate records, providing cumulative record folders, systematic filing of all pertinent data, and making available all materials necessary for a full and complete understanding of the pupil by principal, teachers, and other school workers. Three questions present themselves in a discussion of pupil records: (1) what type of records should be kept, (2) where and by whom should they be kept, and (3) how should they be interpreted to, and used by, pupils, teachers, and parents?

A good pupil record will include data on the child's attendance in school, date and age of enrollment, regularity and punctuality in attendance, date and age of withdrawal, and disposition of the case. It should also include the records of all physical, medical, and dental examinations and of all medical and dental work done. The nature, time, duration and effects of any illness should be noted; also the nature of any physical defects of eyes, ears, or other organs that may affect a child's adjustment in school. In addition to the medical record, all psychological test results should be recorded. Results of ability tests, achievement tests, aptitude tests, diagnostic tests, and tests of social and personality characteristics should be recorded. The record should indicate clearly the educational

progress of the child in his every activity in school. There should be a grade or school mark at least once each semester, and oftener if necessary. A record of any social case study and of home visits by a school social worker and a report of all home contacts made by the school should be filed in the cumulative folder.

If the school is fortunate enough to have an ample clerical staff, the records should probably be kept in the central office of the school where they can be made available to all concerned. If teachers must keep the records, it may be desirable to have them kept in the child's homeroom by the homeroom teacher. In the latter case they should be guarded so that pupils may not indiscriminately read each other's records. Records should be brought up to date at least once each semester for all pupils, and in the case of pupils who present problems in learning or in adjustment as often as necessary, monthly or even weekly or daily if extreme measures are indicated.

The records should include information gained during the school life of the child with respect to factors such as disciplinary difficulties, tendencies to truancy, subject deficiencies, special talents, exceptional mental difficulties, emotional and temperamental characteristics, special retardation or promotion—in short, all significant developments that have appeared during the child's career in school. These data are valuable not only in effecting the better adjustment of pupils to school but also in furnishing the teacher with information regarding the child for regular instructional purposes. Supplied with illuminating information regarding a child's special abilities or disabilities and detailed data concerning his school history, the teacher is able to provide better guidance and to direct more intelligently the individual's progress. The principal, therefore, must assume responsibility for collecting and recording significant pedagogical case data, and for making the information available with economy of time and effort for the use of his teachers.

It is not enough for the administrator of the elementary school simply to require that important data be recorded. Ef-

ficient office organization should provide that records be cumulative; that is, contain not only the most recent information concerning the pupil but significant facts in the development of the pupil since his admission to school. Thus trends may be observed in a pupil's development through the study of his cumulative record in the office file.

Records are not valuable unless properly interpreted to pupils, parents, and teachers. Of course, not all data should be made available to all. Pupils, through report cards, have a right to know of their progress in school. They should also be helped to understand their abilities and limitations. Parents likewise should be kept informed of the progress and development of *their children in school.*²¹ Principal and teachers need to make an interpretation of pertinent data kept on every child. In using cumulative records of pupils in a school, it must always be kept in mind that all data are in the nature of privileged communications. Principal and teachers should observe the same professional relationship between themselves and the pupils and parents that members of the medical and legal profession keep with patients, clients, and others. The records of the child in school are similar to the doctor's case history or the lawyer's legal papers.

Supplementary services required. Good pupil personnel administration in a school requires that the services of principal and teachers be supplemented by workers from other professions. Schools and school systems that have available the services of a school doctor, dentists, and nurse can do a much better job in caring for the physical needs of pupils. Psychometrists and psychologists are necessary to measure abilities and achievements of pupils, particularly when evaluating school progress. Psychiatrists, psychiatric social workers, and regular school social workers can help the school meet the emotional needs of all children. They are of particular help in handling problem cases.

²¹ See Chapter XIX for a full discussion of how to maintain effective school-home relationships.

In addition to the professional workers enumerated, attendance officers, guidance counselors, and other specialists are useful in pupil personnel administration. Remedial teachers are also employed in many schools to assist in the work of regular teachers for meeting the needs of particular pupils who need special help in one or more studies. Speech correctionists are also used in many cities to help in corrective speech of those needing this particular assistance.

SUMMARY

The basic function of every elementary school is to work with children. The task of caring for all elementary school children in the United States is not only a task involving large numbers of the population, but the extent and size of the problem is increasing and will increase for some years to come.

Children are educated in groups, the size of the class group varying from school to school and city to city. *Such groups should be organized in a way that will as far as possible eliminate extreme variations and on a basis of the program to be carried out and the pupils to be served.* Groupings should be fixed in terms of pupil need rather than school traditions. Current policies and practices differ, but there are definite trends away from departmentalization, platoon organizations, and hard and fast grade lines. *Sorting of children should not be done on the basis of a single factor but after consideration of many different factors.*

The physical welfare of the pupils of a school is one of the chief concerns of principal and teachers. *Provision must be made for attendance, safety, health services, physical examinations, immunizations, quarantines, and general health education, including mental health.* Unless the child is in school, is physically able to do his work, and has his physical defects corrected as far as is possible, he will not be able to profit fully from the offerings of the elementary school.

The school should be organized as a real social laboratory. Children will quickly distinguish between real and "make-be-

lieve" opportunities for all-around development. It is not sufficient for them merely to intellectualize responsibility and control in the classroom. *Opportunities must be provided for pupils to acquire knowledge, insights, and understandings that contribute to their character and will qualify them for living as successful citizens.*

Any grading of pupils should always be considered as a temporary adjustment, subject to modification on the basis of the progress made by a given pupil. Transfer from group to group should be possible at any time. This implies flexibility in the organization of the school, and a tolerant attitude on the part of the staff.

Any classification should be considered in the light of an experiment the results of which are to be checked from time to time.

Promotion should never be made solely on the basis of subject marks or the results of examinations. It is difficult to standardize methods of classification and promotion, because the best interests of the pupil are not always served by standardization. A study of the problem is needed by the staff of every school in order to clarify issues essential to successful pupil personnel administration. *Objective criteria should be applied in evaluating the adjustments made in programming children in school.*

The scientific appraisal of pupil progress in a school requires the use of refined instruments of measurement. Skill in the use of these instruments can be developed through an in-service program of training and study by the staff of the school.

The school must provide for more than the physical and mental growth of its pupils. *It is important that schools make provision for the training of emotions, feelings, and attitudes.* The feelings and attitudes of pupils have a bearing upon the learning situation and are a factor in all motivation in learning. In dealing with this phase of the life of a child, the personal relationship between pupil and teacher is of supreme importance.

The educational program in a school must be a co-operative undertaking by parents and teachers. There must be teamwork between home and school, mutual trust and understanding, and a willingness to work together for the good of the child.

All good pupil personnel administration requires the keeping of records. Data concerning the child's physical welfare, mental ability and growth, and personality development are necessary. Records must be made available, properly interpreted, and used by all who work for the welfare of the child in the elementary school.

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Providing for Exceptional Children

IN EVERY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, THERE ARE pupils who deviate from the so-called "normal child" to such an extent that they require special skills, services, and sometimes special placement in order that they may be educated and develop to the limit of their capacities. *These children cannot adjust to ordinary school procedures without special help.* Some may possess physical disabilities, defects such as deafness, defective hearing, blindness, partial blindness, speech difficulties, orthopedic defects, or cardiac conditions that render education in classes organized for normal children unsatisfactory and often impossible. Others differ mentally, being either seriously retarded in intellectual development or exceptionally gifted. Still others are *emotionally disturbed or are so socially maladjusted that they cannot make a proper social adjustment in school and community.* In the last named category are found the truants, incorrigibles, delinquents, and other children with serious behavior problems that often result in disturbed personalities.

DEFINITION AND SCOPE

The term "exceptional children" is used to refer to those who deviate from what is considered to be average in physical,

mental, emotional, or social characteristics to such an extent that their differences can be identified and that they require special educational services in order that they may be properly educated. These special educational services may involve radical modification of the curriculum, different methods of instruction, new and unusual equipment, a change in the school schedule, or even placement in a different school situation. Often these services can be provided for individual pupils in a regular class, but in other cases, because of limited conditions in present school organization, they should be offered in a special class or school.

Extent of the problem. No complete census of exceptional children has ever been taken, and no one knows the exact number of children who need "special education." Of course, every child in a way is exceptional, because his abilities and disabilities differ from those of every other child. In this chapter, however, the term "exceptional" refers only to those who are so markedly different in physical, mental, emotional, or social traits that they need special treatment and services not ordinarily provided for children in general.

The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection in 1930 stated that "there are 3,000,000 children in the elementary schools of the United States who require special treatment and training to make the most of their possibilities. And this number does not include children who are suffering from malnutrition—a number approximated as 6,000,000—and 625,000 more who have weak hearts."¹

The United States Office of Education estimated in 1944 that 12.4 per cent of all school children require special services.² Baker reported that in Detroit, Michigan, 7 per cent of school children were receiving special education. Because there are

¹ White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *Special Education: The Handicapped and the Gifted* (New York: The Century Co., 1931), p. 7.

² Elise H. Martens, *Needs of Exceptional Children*, United States Office of Education Leaflet No. 74. (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1944), p. 4.

waiting lists for special classes, he concluded that approximately 11 per cent of the total school population might need special education.³ On the basis of these and other findings reported elsewhere, one might conclude that from one tenth to one eighth of all children of elementary school age should be considered "exceptional" and should be provided with special educational services.

On the basis of the above estimates, it is apparent that every school system needs to make its own survey to determine the size of its own problem. Means must be provided to identify children in the regular classes who may need special services, and in addition particular pains should be taken to find children of school age who because of their handicaps may not even be enrolled or known to school authorities.

The responsibility of the public school. American education is committed to the philosophy that every child is entitled to an education to the limit of his capacity. The American public believes that all children, regardless of race, creed, abilities, or disabilities, who are educable, are entitled to become useful citizens through the process of education so that they can live useful, wholesome lives, satisfactory to themselves and to their fellows. The special provisions made for exceptional children represent attempts on the part of schools to furnish opportunities to children who differ in physical, mental, and social characteristics. It is the responsibility of the school to see that children who differ get what they need in order that they may have equal educational opportunities. All children are equal before the law and are equal in their rights to learn, even though they may not be equal in their capacity to learn. The philosophy of the American schools holds that the rights of children are not to be made secure for a select group. Every child, whether economically underprivileged or more fortunate, physically handicapped or normal, mentally different or of average intelligence, or antisocial or normal in behavior,

³ Harry J. Baker, *Introduction to Exceptional Children* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1944), p. 458.

has the right to expect the school to provide whatever is necessary in order that he may have an equal opportunity to secure life's satisfactions and make his contribution to American life, however limited his ability to do so may be.

Objectives of education for exceptional children. Exceptional children, like others, must become well-adjusted members of a family and a community; must participate in the activities of the society in which they live; and as citizens in a democracy must assume responsibilities in keeping with their capacities. Thus the objectives of education for exceptional children do not differ from the general objectives of education for all children and must be in accord with the principles of American education described above. As indicated in Chapter 3 the school must make provision for understanding the basic human needs of children. Special provisions must often be made so that exceptional children may attain the four objectives of self-realization, human relationship, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. Everyone, exceptional as well as average, must attain these four objectives, even though it often may be extremely difficult for certain groups of exceptional children to attain them.

Many exceptional children do not profit sufficiently from the group procedures used in regular schools for teaching groups of average ability. Regular schools do not have enough classrooms, do not keep classes small enough, have not provided the additional equipment necessary, and have not employed enough specially qualified teachers to educate all exceptional children. For this reason it is necessary to furnish special services for exceptional children. Children with serious defects of vision, particularly blind children, require different techniques of instruction from those who have normal vision. A child who is deaf or hard of hearing requires special instruction. The crippled child needs special facilities for his physical care. The mentally retarded child needs special methods and can learn best "through doing" and by working with concrete rather than abstract symbols.

Furthermore, even when all of the above are provided, some exceptional children in the same class with normal children and with the same teachers, all trying to learn under the same methods of instruction, do not have equality of opportunity with others. For such exceptional children special classes and special schools staffed by specially trained teachers and other workers with additional equipment to meet particular needs are necessary.

Developments of education of exceptional children. Exceptional children have always attracted the attention of society. In the pre-Christian era they were often persecuted, neglected, and mistreated. Beginning with the Christian conception of the responsibility of the strong to protect the weak, certain religious groups cared for handicapped children. Early contributions to the education of physically handicapped and mentally deficient children were made during the Middle Ages by the church and later by representatives of medical science. In America, the first residential institution for handicapped children was the American School for the Deaf, privately organized in Hartford, Connecticut, in 1817.⁴ Later, states began to recognize their responsibility; and by 1850, several state residential schools had been established. Special classes in local public school systems were organized by the early part of the twentieth century. About the time of World War I, special education in local school districts made significant advances. By that time school attendance laws, the mental testing movement, and other influences led to greater recognition of special programs for those children who were found to be exceptional. By 1930, sixteen states had enacted laws authorizing reimbursement to local school districts for the excess cost of educating exceptional children.⁵ In spite of the fact that the depression of the 1930's retarded progress, statistics show that

⁴ *The Education of Exceptional Children*, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 8.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 9.

there were more children enrolled in special classes in 1940 than in 1930.* World War II showed that handicapped people are an asset when given an opportunity to produce. During the war, the United States Civil Service Commission presented data to show that the handicapped had less absenteeism, less turnover, a lower accident rate, and a higher production record, than the nonhandicapped.[†] The war-time program and the return of many handicapped men to civilian life after the war made the general public more cognizant of the work done by handicapped individuals and influenced many states and many school systems to expand their special-education programs. By 1948, forty-one states had enacted laws authorizing or requiring local school districts to make special provision for one or more types of exceptional children. Thirty-four states provided funds to help finance the program.[‡] Special education is today recognized in all sections of the country as an integral part of the education of all the children of all the people. It is undeveloped in many areas, especially rural areas; but rapid advances are being made everywhere. All large school systems make provision for many types of exceptional children. In 1948, about 425,000 children in the United States were enrolled in special schools and special classes.[§] This figure is far from the three to four million in need of special services if the 10 to 12½ per cent estimate previously referred to is correct. However, the greatest growth in special education has taken place through the enactment of legislation stimulating the development of state-wide programs. Such legislation not only provides financial assistance, but also supervisory and consultant services, and in addition, encouragement in the area of teacher

* Elise H. Martens and Emery M. Foster, *Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children* (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1942), p. 6.

† *Untapped Manpower*. (Washington, D. C.: United States Civil Service Commission, November, 1942, revised edition.)

‡ *The Education of Exceptional Children*, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 10.

§ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

education for the preparation of teachers of exceptional children.

MEETING NEEDS OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

Levels for educating exceptional children. The education of exceptional children can be thought of as taking place on several levels. On the first level, exceptional children are educated in the regular classes by the regular teachers who make adjustments in curriculum, in methods, and in other ways to meet special needs. No doubt many capable and understanding teachers apply modern concepts of child development to meet the needs of exceptional children. When no special educational services are available, the teacher does the best she can and sometimes with effective results. It is obvious, however, that no one teacher can be expected to be a specialist in braille techniques, speech correction, lip reading, adjustments for the mentally deficient or the socially maladjusted, and every other educational service represented in special education.

On the second level, exceptional children are educated in regular classes; but the regular teacher's efforts are supplemented by the employment of counselors, speech correctionists, psychologists, social workers, and other experts in particular lines of education. Often such additional workers have little more training than the regular teacher, but sometimes they are well trained and highly skilled in the techniques of educating exceptional children. Sometimes this additional service is rendered by taking the child from the regular classroom for only a part of the day and permitting him to get most of his work with the regular class. Sometimes the child is removed from the regular class for short periods that he spends with the specialist; he then returns to the regular class. Not infrequently the specialist merely consults with the child and the teacher at stated intervals or whenever called by necessity. At this level, special educational facilities are provided for the exceptional child without placement in a special class or special

school. The method is effective for some types of exceptional children but is *inadequate for others*.

The third level is found when exceptional children are taken from the regular class and placed in a special class in the regular school or in a special school. Usually the special school operates as a day school, but sometimes the special school also provides custodial care. In general public school systems do not provide custodial care, which is usually provided by the state. Special classes and schools for the blind or partially sighted, for the deaf or hard of hearing, for the orthopedically handicapped or the cardiopathic, and for the mentally retarded and the socially maladjusted are examples of the education of exceptional children on this level. The plan offers the best opportunity for providing the many highly specialized services needed by many exceptional children. It is thus possible to provide teachers who are specialists in the field for which the special class or special school is set up and to provide the necessary physical facilities needed by exceptional children that could not be provided in all regular schools. The third level provides real special education for those who need it most and is the most effective method of educating exceptional children.

Factors common to all types of special education. All exceptional children are in need of certain special facilities, regardless of the particular handicap that makes them exceptional. Among such common factors are the following: (1) the administration and supervision of the special services, classes, or schools that may be provided, (2) the identification and diagnosis of the difficulties of exceptional children, (3) the study of the growth of exceptional children, (4) the guidance needed by exceptional children, (5) the special preparation needed by teachers of special classes, (6) the problem of educating the parents of exceptional children, and (7) the prevention of handicaps in children.

A school or school system that does not provide for its exceptional children is not offering equal educational opportuni-

ties to all the children of the community it attempts to serve. A school or school system that does not provide for the above-listed factors that are inherent in a good special-education program is not making it possible for children who deviate from the so-called normal child, to develop to the limit of their capacities: Certainly school workers, both administrators and teachers, should attempt to find answers to the general questions that apply to all groups of exceptional children, even though every school may not be able to solve all the problems pertaining to every particular type of exceptional child.

All principals and teachers should become sensitized to the problems faced by all exceptional children, to know how to identify them, to know where to refer them, to know some of their common needs, to be able to deal intelligently with the parents of handicapped children, and to do all that is possible to prevent handicaps in all children.

Administration of programs for exceptional children. Any effective educational program depends upon an understanding and an efficient school administration. Even though needs may be known, a trained personnel obtainable, and sufficient funds available to carry out a program, the development of a good school program requires expert direction. A program of special education for exceptional children will succeed only insofar as it obtains such expert direction. Only a small percentage of exceptional children need institutionalization; and unless some unusual condition makes it impossible for the child to remain at home, he will be served best in his own community. Too often schools and administrators have avoided their responsibilities for meeting the problems of exceptional children with unusual needs, handicaps, or problems. Good school administration must recognize the physical, mental, and emotional differences in children and be aware of those factors within the child or his environment that require a special program conducive to his growth and development. Refusing admission to school to certain types of handicapped children, permitting and even encouraging parents to withdraw serious problem

children from school, and permitting children who do not fit into the general pattern of regular education to waste their time in regular classrooms are bad administrative practices found too often in otherwise good school systems.

Although the principles of administration in general education apply in the education of exceptional children, something more is needed. Those who administer a program of special education must not only be good school administrators but must know something of the special needs of the many different types of exceptional children; know about the special training required for teachers of special classes; have a knowledge of all the special equipment and additional services needed to serve exceptional children; and understand the philosophy, techniques, and practices of special education.

As in general education, there are sound principles for supervising and administering the program in special education. No program of special education will succeed unless responsibilities are definitely fixed. Often a director of special education or an assistant superintendent is made responsible. In smaller communities, the superintendent himself may have to assume the responsibility. Responsibilities in special education will require the defining of policies and procedures not only in the educational phases of the work but also in the psychological, medical, and social aspects of the lives of exceptional children.

The school and the home must always work together in educating the child, and this is particularly true when children are deviates. Parents ought to know and understand what is being attempted in special education. A good program in special education is a privilege to receive extra service, and the administrator of the program must see that parents understand that part of the underlying philosophy and know that the school system or the state is under an obligation to spend more money on the program just as parents of handicapped children must spend more in the care of the child who is handicapped. The plans of the administrator must include provisions for parent education so that the home and school can work to-

gether as a harmonious team toward the realization of common goals.

Another responsibility of administering special education is that of effecting an organization for identifying and locating exceptional children and studying their special needs. Trained personnel is required to determine which child needs special services or special placement and the nature of those services. Co-operative working arrangements must be made with the medical profession and other public or private groups who may be interested in handicapped children to help in identifying and diagnosing those who need special educational services.

The administrator of special class work or service must make provision for special housing, special equipment, and special instructional supplies if the program of special education is to function effectively.

The administrator will also be required to develop definite policies for the transfer of pupils to special classes and from special classes. Regular teachers and principals must be kept informed of the policy of the administration regarding such procedures. Such transfers should be made for the best interest of the child, never as a punishment, and always done in a way that will help in the child's adjustment and not lead to further emotional or personality difficulties.

In administering special groups, the administrator must maintain a balance between the interests of the pupils needing special education and the interests of the great majority of the pupil personnel. Often the needs of the two groups will conflict. The administrator must see that such conflicts do not work out to the detriment of either group. In making all decisions concerning the administration of special groups, he must weigh both sides of the question before deciding upon his course of action. Thus, in determining whether a pupil should be placed in a special class, the administrator must be governed both by the welfare of the individual child and that of the student body. In general, it is best not to segregate any individual by placement in a special group if he can receive as

good or better training in a normal group of pupils, even though it may be necessary to give him special help and more individual attention than is usually provided in the regular classes. The exception to the rule is encountered when the detriment to the interests of the group outweighs the benefit derived by the individual from his association with the regular group.

In the administration of special groups within a school, the administrator should strive to make them feel that they are an integral part of the regular school. In brief, the special groups should be administered as nearly as possible in the same way that normal groups are handled. The regular school routine should be followed wherever possible. Any stigma attached to placement in a special group should be carefully avoided. However, where the needs of the special group demand it, the principal should not hesitate to deviate from the regular school routine.

In organizing special classes for deviate pupils, the groups should be made as homogeneous as possible. For example, the mentally deficient should not be placed with behavior problems and the speech defectives with the deaf. Even sex separation is sometimes necessary for truant groups, behavior problems, and the mentally subnormal of adolescent years.

Such specialists as physicians, nurses, psychologists, and psychiatrists may be called upon to do diagnostic work, to suggest remedial measures, and to advise with the officers of the school; but the school should be the final authority in the transfer of children to special groups. The school administrator represents the parent as well as the school and the co-operation of the parent must be secured, if the child is to obtain the greatest service from the special class. The school administrator must, therefore, be qualified to interpret the findings of the specialists to parents and teachers, not merely to deliver orders.

Finally the administrator in charge of the education of exceptional children should recognize that the program is designed to meet the individual needs, interests, and disabilities

of each atypical child. This requires continuous attention to all the activities planned for the child. Just removing handicapped children from the regular grades to a special room is not enough.

Identifying and diagnosing exceptional children. Exceptional children cannot be educated unless they are discovered and have their difficulties diagnosed. Testing is needed not only to find the children who need special types of training but also to prescribe the kind of treatment and educational procedure that will prove effective in their education. Because there are many kinds of exceptional children, many kinds of tests will be necessary. Every type of test from an observation schedule and group survey test that can be used by one with little training to a complex and technical examination that can be administered only by a trained medical specialist, clinical psychologist, or psychiatrist will be used.

A program to discover children who need special educational care will of necessity be related to the testing program used for children in regular classes. Periodic health inspections of all school children and examinations for vision and hearing will reveal those with certain physical handicaps who need special consideration. A program of educational achievement tests and group mental examinations will indicate those who need further study to determine whether they require placement in special classes for the mentally different. General mental-hygiene programs usually disclose the status of individual children within that area.

The nature and extent of the legal provisions for the health examination of school children is given in a bulletin of the United States Office of Education.¹⁰ All forty-eight states make some type of legal provision for the health examination of school children. In some states (twenty), annual examinations are necessary; in others, different periods are indicated.

¹⁰ *State Administration of School Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*, United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 13 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947).

In the field of physical health, most examinations must be individual rather than by group methods such as are used with intelligence and educational achievement tests. One exception to the individual method is the group test of hearing by the 4-A Audiometer; results do not furnish an accurate diagnosis of hearing defects or their causes but do give a list of suspected cases that can be studied further by individual methods.

Educational achievement tests, particularly those used in surveying progress of elementary school children in the fundamental subjects like the three R's, have significance in finding handicapped children because the low scores of many physically and mentally handicapped children and the high scores of the gifted reveal that they are exceptional children. The results of group tests should be verified by individual examinations given by clinical psychologists. Such individual tests should yield more detailed scientific data of value in diagnosing each case.

Group mental tests can be used in a manner similar to group achievement tests. There is danger that handicapped children will be rated incorrectly because of their handicaps; but if the results are carefully evaluated, they can be used as a starting point for the special study of children who may be found to be exceptional and who may need special services.

Individual teachers have always made lists of pupils who show behavior and personality deviations. Too often only those with aggressive traits rather than recessive characteristics are found in spite of the fact that recessive traits may have serious implications. Usually surveys of behavior deviations have been used on children with known deviations. Much more extensive use of personality tests, case histories, and individual interview techniques should be used on all children to determine who should be given special services.

Needless to say, every child suspected of being exceptional needs a thorough individual study in order that he can be *diagnosed correctly*. In the field of the physically handicapped, that study should be made by qualified medical specialists as

well as by qualified educational specialists. For those mentally different, the work of the teacher must be supplemented by that of clinical psychologists. Socially maladjusted children and children with emotional and other behavior difficulties need individual study by psychiatrists, social workers, and psychologists, as well as by teachers who have specialized in the education of the behavior deviate.

In the selection of tests and other instruments used in diagnosing exceptional children, particular care must be used to insure that the test used is suitable for the particular child who is being studied. Too many of the tests used assume *normal* language development. A test that is excellent for a deaf child or a child with a speech defect may be quite useless with the blind child or with certain crippled children. Frequently severe defects are so apparent that they are easily recognized by teachers and parents; yet until fully studied by qualified personnel, the exact nature of the defect is not fully known and the special educational procedures that must be used cannot be determined.

Identifying and diagnosing exceptional children is a very important step in their care. It is the initial step in attacking the problems relating to their education. After a good system of special education has once been established, the diagnostic program should be continued for the discovery of additional cases among children in the regular classes. Further testing is also necessary for evaluating the program of special education and for determining the progress of the individual child who is in the special class or who may be receiving special services.

The growth of exceptional children. The need for studying growth patterns as a means of understanding the nature of elementary school children was referred to in Chapter 3. The need for such study in working with exceptional children is urgent. Studies of the growth of gifted children, mentally retarded children, children with physical handicaps and glandular disturbances, and of those disturbed in emotion and behavior all reveal implications for the educational treatment of

such exceptional children. When the growth patterns of exceptional children are studied, it is found that, in general, the item of growth that characterizes them as exceptional is the one that deviates most from their total organismic age while along other lines they are more nearly normal. In other words the total growth of an individual tends to be unified and a child's achievement in school is a function of total growth even though handicaps may affect it adversely at times. A knowledge of the whole child in the total field of his growth is a necessary frame of reference for the special class teacher of exceptional children. Standards should be set in terms of the individual exceptional child who is growing rather than in terms of averages of all children.

Guidance for exceptional children. Guidance refers to services provided to help exceptional children make plans for their own activities. It helps them develop their ability to set suitable goals for themselves and to discover and organize the means of attaining these goals. A good guidance program for exceptional children will help the exceptional child understand himself and his limitations, will help him develop interests that are socially acceptable and consistent with his capacity, will give him information that he needs in order to make his plans, and will help him discover and gain access to opportunities for reaching his own individual goals in life.

Exceptional children should receive the benefit of all guidance services provided by schools for all children. In addition, schools should give handicapped individuals the guidance they need because of the presence of their handicap, and such guidance will differ with the different types of handicaps. Finally, schools must make it possible for handicapped children to receive the guidance services provided by outside agencies interested in the handicapped whose work can be closely co-ordinated with that of the school. Often such agencies have at their disposal resources for certain types of handicapped beyond that which the schools can supply.

Guidance for exceptional children must be concerned par-

ticularly with personality development. Handicapping conditions often result in warped personalities. Unwise parental attitudes toward children's handicaps often cause the children to develop an unwholesome attitude toward themselves, their handicap, and their outlook on life. Handicapping often blocks the individual in his attempts to find his place and to reach his goals. After repeated failures without finding any means of progress, his personality becomes completely disintegrated. Severe handicaps of physique or intellect usually impose great restriction upon the choices that can be made by the handicapped individual. Physical, sensory, and intellectual handicaps all tend to reduce the range of activities in which a child can engage. As a result, handicapped individuals develop many more personality problems than normal children. Guidance, when attempted by the school for its exceptional children, must take into account the peculiar psychology of the physically handicapped and mentally deficient. The services of highly competent counselors are desirable in providing guidance for exceptional children.

Many things can be done in a school, even though it may lack well-trained personnel, whenever it attempts to guide the exceptional child. The following have been offered by Finch and Yowell¹¹ as suggestions: (1) introducing activities that the handicapped child may perform as effectively as his classmates; (2) taking steps to assure recognition of the handicapped child's successes; (3) providing opportunities for experiences that may lead to the development of new interests by the handicapped child; (4) teaching motor, social, or other skills that will be prized by the child's peers; and (5) modifying the group atmosphere through teaching increased tolerance and appreciation for unusual qualities in others.

In addition to the foregoing, a good program for guiding exceptional children will provide much remedial instruction,

¹¹ F. H. Finch and Velma Yowell, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, Forty-ninth Yearbook National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 92.

tional child, much more than the normal child, is dependent upon his teacher and her ability to help him. In many areas of special education, highly specialized techniques must be used if the child is to profit by his school experience. The education of the deaf, of the blind, of spastics, and of children with severe speech handicaps are examples. In spite of this, teaching exceptional children is similar in many respects to teaching normal children. Although they may be atypical in some physical, mental, emotional, or social characteristics, exceptional children possess the same personality traits and have the same fundamental needs, the same interests, and often the same capacities as normal children, except, of course, in the area in which they are handicapped.

For this reason it is considered desirable for teachers of special classes to have some teaching experience with normal children before specializing in the education of exceptional children. Formerly, most special class teachers were experienced elementary school teachers who had been given additional training in some field of special education. Too often the difficulties inherent in such a program for training teachers of exceptional children have not produced the best results.

In general most authorities now agree that special class teachers should be educated in both elementary and special education in a four- or five-year curriculum. Under this plan the prospective teacher is trained in elementary school education, has some practice teaching in a class for normal children, and also receives training in some area of special education.

Many states that provide financial support for special class work require certain prescribed courses for teaching in special classes. In general, special class teachers should have training in (1) general cultural education, (2) elementary or secondary education, (3) general courses in the field of special education, and (4) courses in the particular area of specialization. In No. 3, such courses as the psychology of exceptional children, mental hygiene, principles of child growth, educational and mental measurement, and methods of special class

work are usually offered. The courses referred to in No. 4 will vary with the specialized area of exceptional children and will be different for each category of special education.

Quite as important as training are certain traits or characteristics of teachers. Most successful special class teachers have such qualifications as the following: (1) the capacity for self-direction, (2) patience and perseverance, (3) objective and experimental attitude, (4) good physical stamina, and (5) a healthy personal adjustment.

Teachers of special classes must often work under their own direction, much more so than regular teachers. Because of this, they must have the ability and initiative to do so. Because the learning of exceptional children takes place under handicaps and often more slowly than that of normal children, the special class teacher must be patient, optimistic, determined, and not easily discouraged. Because of the lack of published materials, the special-class teacher must be willing to work out new and heretofore untried techniques and be resourceful in trying new ways of teaching. All teaching requires physical fitness, but teaching handicapped children is particularly hard and teachers who teach special classes must be particularly strong. Teachers who are physically handicapped may become good teachers of exceptional children, provided their handicap is not similar to the handicap of the children they teach, and provided the teacher's handicap does not restrict her services to the children. Because work with exceptional children involves intimate dealings with parents who are often disturbed by the child's handicaps, special-class teachers must have wholesome well-adjusted personalities of their own. Flexibility of mind, a wholesome outlook on life, and a good sense of humor will often help the special-class teacher in difficult situations.

Educating the parents of exceptional children. Home and school must always co-operate in the education and care of children, hence the need for close co-operation between parents and teachers of exceptional children is readily understood.

The usual co-operation between home and school found in the parent-teacher association work in regular schools has spread to special education and includes definite programs for the education of parents of handicapped children. The state schools for the deaf and blind in Illinois conduct an annual two weeks' summer training school for the parents of deaf and blind children. The State of Minnesota has published a booklet of suggestions for parents of subnormal children.¹² The National Society for Crippled Children and Adults provides a service program that stresses the education of parents of crippled children in articles, pamphlets, and reprints. The John Tracy Clinic for deaf children in Los Angeles, California, educates the parents of deaf children in a small preschool for deaf children and their parents, in classes for all parents of deaf children, and by correspondence courses.

Most special schools dealing with exceptional children work with the parents in order to get them to accept the child emotionally and to be objective about the child's handicap. Special-class teachers can appeal to parents by showing them that any other course will only add to the child's handicap. Parents can be shown that it frequently is not the handicap itself that hinders the child but how he feels about the handicap. Teachers can help parents understand the exceptional child's possibilities instead of permitting them to be overwhelmed by his limitations. Parents also need help in understanding their own reactions to their child's handicap. It is important that parents know whether they feel resentment, embarrassment, oversolicitude, rejection, or pity in their dealings with the child. Interviews with parents and discussion groups conducted by the school personnel will help parents to understand and to develop skills in dealing with their children. Parents must also understand the nature of their own contribution to the education of the exceptional child. This is particularly true in the

¹² *Teach Me. A Guide for Parents and Others Who Have the Care of Subnormal Children* (St. Paul, Minnesota: Mental Health Unit, Division of Public Institutions, Department of Social Security, 1945).

development of the language arts by certain types of handicapped children.

The special-education program of the school must teach the parents of exceptional children that the children have the same basic needs as normal children but that, because of their handicap, different means of fulfilling those needs must be employed by the home and school. Parents of exceptional children must be helped to understand that special education differs from regular education, not in what it attempts to do as much as in how it educates the child. Curricula, methods of teaching, and learning aids all differ when educating the handicapped.

Parents must also be encouraged to help the school in the development of wholesome emotional patterns and a good social behavior by the exceptional child. Parents can also assist the school in finding good vocational outlets for many handicapped children.

In general, special-class teachers should take the initiative in establishing good parent-teacher relationships. This usually can be best done by having the teacher stress the assets of the child and by pointing out the possibilities for his education before they discuss the difficulties that must be overcome. The teacher should also be willing to receive as well as to give suggestions. The parent-teacher relationship must be a co-operative venture in which both work for the welfare of the exceptional child.

The role of the school in prevention. The program of special education in any school system should embrace within it the germ for its ultimate extinction. In other words, preventing handicapping conditions should be one of the aims of the program. The school should foster preventive programs in medicine, health, child guidance, and education so that there will be fewer children needing special education.

Preventive work must be done in the following areas: (1) abnormalities and diseases that can be controlled to a greater degree if immunization, diagnosis, and medical treatment are given at the proper time; (2) sensory defects of the

eye and ear that can be prevented if treatment is given early enough; (3) safety education to prevent crippling accidents; and (4) healthy human relationships in home and school to secure satisfactory social adjustments.

Any program of prevention will require good co-operative working relations between the home and the school, between the community agencies and the school, between the members of the medical and dental professions and the workers in the school, and between various governmental agencies and the school. All who touch the lives of the school children should be enlisted by the school in its program of prevention.

Transportation of exceptional children. Facilities must be provided for the transportation of pupils to and from special classes. Often the distances that exceptional children must travel to and from school to get the type of special classwork they need requires the use of public or private means of transportation. The nature of certain physical handicaps is such that bus transportation is frequently provided. This is true for crippled children, cardiac cases, and other pupils with severe physical handicaps. In some cases, an escort must be provided for the handicapped child; and when this is true, the attendant's transportation as well as that of the child must be paid.

Both public and private transportation facilities are used, and many school districts have their own school buses. In most cases, the cost of transportation of exceptional children is paid by the school districts. In many states, local districts are reimbursed by the state for such transportation costs, and in some states as much as \$300 per year per child is provided for his transportation.

When buses are used, school authorities will be concerned with the type of person employed as an attendant, with the proper and most efficient routing of buses, and with the cost of the operation of the bus. Transportation accounts must be carefully checked and audited and should be placed in charge of some one teacher or other official selected by the principal or superintendent.

Segregation of exceptional children. A major problem to be considered in the organization, administration, and supervision of special-class groups involves the question of the extent and type of segregation to be provided. Segregation as commonly defined is not a necessary concomitant of the education of exceptional children. An exceptional child may be more harmfully segregated when kept in a regular class that does not meet his needs than when assigned to a special class that does meet his needs. Segregation is not always a matter of separate rooms. It may be a matter of psychological or social repression.¹¹ A child cannot be more cruelly segregated than by being kept in a room where his repeated failures separate him from other children who are experiencing success. Policies are usually determined by the school system, and individual schools will be called upon to follow the policy adopted. This is true with reference to whether special classes are placed in special schools or remain as separate units of regular schools. However, the amount of segregation any particular school may care to give any special group located within the school will depend largely upon the initiative of the principal and the teachers of the school. In some cases, it is wise to segregate as little as possible. Cases of minor speech defects require very little special attention. It is usually sufficient to arrange for the special speech teacher to conduct the work with individuals or with very small groups by calling the particular pupils from their regular rooms when needed by the special teacher. A program and schedule made by the principal in conference with the speech teacher will usually care for the matter satisfactorily.

Most types of special rooms are able to operate efficiently with one teacher keeping the same group of pupils throughout the whole day, making exceptions usually for the work in the gymnasium or playground. With some groups, however, it is

¹¹ Graham and Engel, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 21.

wise to introduce a greater amount of departmental work. Special provision should also be made by the principal for the use by the special divisions located within his school of such rooms as the auditorium, the library, and the shops.

In the case of some types of special division, it is considered wise to segregate the sexes. For example, adolescent boys and girls in subnormal groups are usually separated into different classes, but younger boys and girls are usually left in the same class.

Some special classes may have a longer or a shorter day than the regular school pupils. This calls for arranging a school program so that there will be as little disturbance as possible to those having different hours. It is also often deemed wise to have different recess and noon periods for special classes located in a school.

The task of caring for the segregation of special classes in a school will of course be dependent upon the type of school organization employed. In each case, different procedures may be necessary. In general, a principal should organize the special classes located in the school so that they will be least conspicuous and deviate as little as possible from the regular routine of the school. He must, however, establish the administrative practices that will best fill the needs of both regular and special groups without either interfering with the work of the other. He must also provide for meeting the individual needs of all pupils in the special groups by adjustment of the work in their special groups.

Curriculum problems. In operating special classes, the school is concerned with the type of education that must be provided for each special class. No set rules and no set curriculum can be provided that will fit all types of special classes. Each group must be provided with the type of education that fits its needs best.

In many cities, the course of study for each type of special class is provided by the central office. In others, the local school must adapt the regular course of study as fully as pos-

sible, making such special provisions as are necessary. Special materials and supplies must also be provided; and, in many cases, special furniture, desks, and other equipment should be included.

Special-class teachers must often create their own curriculum materials and work out new and unique approaches to the use of these curriculum materials.

Much of the work of special classes will be of an individual nature. Most of it will be ungraded and will involve handwork as well as book work. The special type of education needed for each of the many special groups of exceptional children cannot be outlined in this chapter. Teachers and principals must consult the authorities in each particular field of special education.

Class size. Another problem facing school workers in dealing with the education of exceptional children is that of class size. Of necessity all schools must teach children in groups. Average class size in regular schools varies widely. In some schools it is as low as ten to fifteen per teacher; in others as high as forty per teacher. Most school authorities agree that the average class size in regular schools should not exceed twenty-five or thirty pupils per teacher. The optimum class size for effective work with exceptional children varies even in the special groups. Classes for the deaf and blind enroll fewer pupils per teacher than most of the other types of classes, whereas classes for partially sighted and crippled children may more nearly approach the size of a class for normal children.

The school administration should establish regulations regarding the class size of each special group. In many states, where the state reimburses the local district for some of the cost of special education, the state department of education specifies the size of each class. After giving due consideration to any regulations of the state department, the size of any class of exceptional children should be determined by the best thought that can be given to meeting the needs of all the children in any particular group.

Class size of special groups will depend upon many things,

such as the availability of suitable quarters, the nature of the children's handicaps, the training and ability of the teacher, the kind and amount of special assistance to be given the teacher, the availability of special services within the school system, and the distance that handicapped children must travel in order to get special education.

THE PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

The orthopedically handicapped and the cardiopathic. Approximately one in every hundred persons under twenty-one years of age or an estimated 550,000 children in the United States have serious orthopedic impairments. In addition, it is estimated that there are about 500,000 cases of rheumatic heart among persons under twenty-one years of age.¹⁴ These handicaps vary in severity from minor disorders to involvements that make school attendance impossible. By no means do all crippled and cardiopathic cases require special educational facilities. Those less handicapped can usually do their work in the regular classrooms, whereas the more severe cases require special rooms, special schools with special equipment, or even hospitalization where they may receive bedside, part-time special-class instruction. Many crippled children have multiple handicaps including such defects as impaired speech, hearing, and vision and mental handicaps. In addition many crippled children are over-age for their grade, which is a factor that has a direct bearing on their education. Numerous studies also indicate that there are more boys than girls among the crippled and that the intelligence quotient of the crippled is skewed toward the low side.

Special schools for the crippled child must make provisions for meeting his medical needs, where the efforts of doctors, nurses, physiotherapists, and teachers must be co-ordinated. Often this requires structural changes in the building—ramps

¹⁴ Linck, Shover, and Jacobs, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 197.

instead of stairs; much additional equipment—tanks, X-ray machinery, special desks, and the like, as well as other facilities. The building and its equipment should eliminate all architectural barriers and provide all necessary safety factors made necessary by the nature of the child's handicaps.

In the educational work for the crippled and cardiacs, many new devices have been developed such as projected books, which, operated by a finger or a toe, enable a bedridden child to read. Ceiling projectors, recordings, radio equipment, two-way telephone communication between the pupil and the classroom, and the usual visual aids including pictures, slides, and the like find special uses in educating the crippled and cardiacs. In addition to the above, good special-class teachers will use homemade equipment, makeshift appliances, and practical use of everyday materials to interest their handicapped charges. The extra-class activities, as well as the regular classroom work, must be adapted to the needs of the crippled child. Skilled guidance by a teacher especially prepared to teach these handicapped children is required.

Special schools for the crippled and cardiopathics usually employ physical, occupational, and speech therapy to supplement the work of teachers. Sometimes these therapists are itinerant and go to several centers; in larger schools they are regularly assigned to the school.

Deaf and hard of hearing children. Children with defective hearing fall into two categories: those who are hard of hearing and those who are deaf. Educationally there is a great difference, because the difference lies in the ability or inability to acquire an adequate concept of spoken language. Hard of hearing children are able to understand and use speech and language, having learned them through such sense of hearing as they possess, limited as it may be. Deaf children, however, are deprived of the ability to communicate by speech and language because of their almost total loss of hearing or because the impairment took place at an early age. If a child loses his

hearing after he has learned to use speech and language, he is not to be considered deaf from an educational standpoint.

Of course no hard and fast lines of demarcation can be drawn between normal children, hard of hearing children, and deaf children. Children who are hard of hearing may have so little loss that they can be accommodated in regular classes by merely giving them favorable seating arrangements. Others with a moderate loss of hearing can be served by giving them hearing aids and special auditory training. However, if their adjustment in regular classes is not satisfactory, they, with those who have a more marked loss of hearing, should be placed in special classes for the hard of hearing.

Children, who are on the borderline between the hard-of-hearing and the deaf, do not have enough hearing to learn language and speech with the unaided ear, although they may have some residual hearing that can be utilized in their education. Such children, along with those who have a total loss of hearing, are usually educated as deaf children. The education of these children should be undertaken at an early age, at least by the time the child is two or two and one half years. Unless such children can get an understanding of the process of communication by learning to read lips before the age of three, they will be greatly handicapped for the rest of their lives.

Various estimates indicate that approximately five per cent of the school children in the United States suffer from some degree of loss in hearing.¹⁵ All of these are entitled to receive an education fitting their individual needs. They need speech and reading instruction, auditory training, speech education, special training in establishing the process of communication, and often tutorial service in school subjects.

The educational needs of hard of hearing children with too much loss of hearing to profit by instruction in regular classes are best met in special classes or special schools. Many deaf children, in fact most of them, are enrolled in schools for the

¹⁵ H. Davis (ed.), *Hearing and Deafness: A Guide for Laymen* (New York: Murray Hill Books, Inc., 1947), pp. 354-55.

deaf, and most states provide residential schools for their care and education.

Blind and partially sighted children. Many children who have visual handicaps, whose deviations from accepted visual norms are amenable to treatment or that can be compensated for by optical aids, are generally not considered to be exceptional educationally and are, of course, educated in the regular classes with normal children. The partially sighted children who are educated in special "sight-saving" classes are those whose visual impairment is so serious that, even with medical treatment and optical aids, they cannot be educated in classes for normal children and yet have too much sight to make use of instruction in Braille. Blind children are those whose loss of sight is so great or who have no sense of sight and need to receive their education in Braille. Braille is an ingenious system of embossed dots using the sense of touch to impart information. Blind children must therefore rely upon touch and hearing to acquire knowledge.

Children having a visual acuity better than 20/70 are considered normal; those between 20/70 and 20/200 are considered partially-sighted and need special services and special education usually provided at least for part of their work in special classes; those whose sight is less than 20/200 or who have no sense of sight are considered blind.¹⁴

Partially sighted and blind children are usually discovered before they enter school, but medical examinations, including ophthalmological examinations, at intervals throughout school life will identify others who may be exceptional to the extent that they need special services or special educational treatment. The partially sighted need special equipment such as large-type books, 18 to 24 point, large-type typewriters, pencils with thick, soft leads, and the like. The quality and quantity of illumination, both natural and artificial, are of great importance.

¹⁴ Hathaway and Lowenfeld, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), pp. 135-136.

Classrooms for the partially sighted should be equipped to provide in all parts of the room fifty-foot candles of correctly diffused, distributed, directed, and controlled illumination without glare.¹⁷ Gray-green chalkboards are recommended, and the furniture should be movable and adjustable so that desk tops will not produce glare.

Blind children are often educated in state residential schools, but many cities now provide work in Braille classes for them. They, too, need special equipment and supplies. Talking books, Braille typewriters, relief maps and globes, and textbooks in Braille are but a few of the more important examples. In general, the teaching should be concrete and unified and provide suitable stimulation and as much self-activity as possible.

Teachers of partially sighted and blind children need special preparation for their work. In addition they must be able to give educational, vocational, and personal guidance for those handicapped by lack of normal sight; not the least of their efforts must be expended to secure a satisfactory social adjustment.

Other physically handicapped. In addition to defects of limb, sight, and hearing, children suffer from defects of speech, from epilepsy, tubercular disorders, and glandular imbalance. Schools often provide special classwork in speech correction. The speech defectives comprise the largest single group of handicapped school children. Speech defects are of two types: functional disorders such as defects of articulation, stuttering, and voice problems; and organic speech disorders, such as defects associated with cleft palate and cerebral palsy. In addition there are problems in speech related to impaired hearing and because of retarded speech development. Most children with defective speech are normally educable, and the great majority can be corrected or greatly benefited. Speech correction programs should be supervised by professionally trained speech correctionists, who serve as consultants for classroom teachers, conduct in-service training courses, and

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 139.

give individualized and small-group instruction to the more severely handicapped.¹⁸

Epilepsy is not only a medical but an educational problem, and misconceptions concerning the epileptic have added to the difficulty. Many public schools accept epileptic children in the regular classes, a few exclude them, and some provide special classes for them. Where special classes are provided, medication can be carried out more readily and provision for rest and recovery after seizures can be provided without threatening the unfortunate child's status. The school's obligation is to provide an educational opportunity for the epileptic child either within its day school facilities or within a special class or through individual home instruction.

Tubercular disorders in children are chiefly a medical problem, but it is one which requires the co-operation of school workers. Routine physical examinations of school children, the work of the school nurse, and surveys using tubercular tests and chest X-ray examinations reveal those children who need help. Once tuberculosis is diagnosed, the education of the child is the responsibility of the school to be conducted in hospital classes, special day school classes, or through home-teaching programs. Usually the educational program will be secondary to the medical treatment. When children are noninfectious and are strong enough, they can be educated in regular classes. Because such children need additional rest periods and often supplementary feeding, physical improvement attendants and special rooms provided with cots are indicated. Many schools provide such services and in addition provide teachers who conduct classes in hospitals for tuberculous children or in the homes of those who convalesce in the home.

Glandular disorders involve disturbances of the endocrine glands, notably the pituitary, thyroid, parathyroid, adrenals, pancreas, ovaries, testes, stomach, and intestines. The secre-

¹⁸ Wendell Johnson, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), p. 193.

tions of these glands and the hormones produced by them exert a very great influence on the functioning of the whole organism, affecting it psychologically as well as physiologically. In addition, undernourishment and malnutrition affect a very large group of school children. The problem is largely a medical one; but when diagnosed, educational programs can be developed within the schools to meet the special needs of children suffering glandular imbalance. In some large school systems, special classes, called fresh-air rooms, open-window classes, or by other designations, are provided. Usually the program for this group of exceptional children requires only careful observation of the child to ascertain that growth changes are normal and that educational work provided is in keeping with the child's capacity and in accord with the medical therapy that is being employed.

MENTAL DEVIATES

Mentally handicapped children. If the mentality of an unselected group of children is measured by an intelligence test, a normal distribution of scores will be obtained. Most of them can be considered normal, probably about 60 per cent; about half of the others will be above normal and the rest below normal. Of those rated below normal there will be three groups: children who are dull normal, or slow learners; children who are mentally retarded and educable in special classes; and finally those who are definitely feeble-minded, many of whom should be trained in institutions for the feeble-minded.

There are no definite lines of demarcation between the groups enumerated above; and although various intelligence quotients are sometimes used to differentiate one from the other, other factors must be considered before a definite decision is made for the educational placement of an individual child.

The dull normal, or slow learners, usually can be helped to make progress in accordance with their abilities by differentiating instructional materials, by giving them more of the

regular teacher's attention, and by using individual teaching techniques. Unless other factors make placement in a special group necessary, most of them can be cared for in the regular classes.

Those children who are definitely mentally retarded, with an intelligence quotient between 50 and 79, are in need of special education in special classes or schools. Because this group of exceptional children is limited in its progress toward the common goals of its age group, the educational program must be adapted to the needs and capacities of the child. For example, reading must be taught differently in these special classes.¹⁸ The literature in the field of educating the mentally retarded is extensive and should be reviewed by those interested in educating the child who is exceptional because of mental retardation. Teachers of mentally retarded children need special and specific training for the task, and many states require such additional training before special education programs for mentally handicapped can be approved for financial aid.

The superior or gifted child. Children of very high or superior mentality are regarded in some schools as subjects for special education. The gifted child is both an asset of great value to society and a special responsibility of the school to make the most of his potentialities. Special education of gifted children is not only justified but is demanded by the need in our democratic society for the high quality leadership that gifted children potentially possess. Studies indicate that a program for the gifted based on enrichment produced superior results in comparison with the general school program.¹⁹ Schools often use acceleration as a means of caring for the needs of the gifted. No rules can be made governing the amount of acceleration that is desirable. Factors, in addition to the child's mentality, must be considered in each individual

¹⁸ S. A. Kirk, *Teaching Reading to Slow Learning Children* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940).

¹⁹ Merle R. Sumption, *Three Hundred Gifted Children* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1941).

case. Enrichment and acceleration are complementary in the best educational programs for the gifted. The objectives in educating gifted children are the same as for other children, but the difference lies in the greater emphasis placed on creative effort, intellectual initiative, critical thinking, social responsibility, and the development of qualities of leadership.

Enrichment and acceleration in the education of gifted children can be best secured by using special classes or individual attention. Authorities in the field²¹ recommend that, wherever possible, special classes be organized for the education of the gifted and that the individual instruction be given under the direction of a specially trained supervising teacher.

MALADJUSTED PUPILS

The socially maladjusted and behavior problems. There is somewhat greater confusion of terminology in this phase of special education than in those dealing with physically and mentally handicapped children. The term "socially maladjusted," usually includes those children who are spoken of as truants, delinquents, incorrigibles, behavior-problem cases, predelinquents, and pretruants. Some authors include the emotionally unstable, the nervous, the psychotic, and the withdrawn, negativistic child who does not fit into a social group. Most educators consider any child socially maladjusted who is characterized as a truant, delinquent, or incorrigible.

Surveys of the behavior-problem cases show considerable variation in the percentage of the school population that may be considered in need of special educational provisions because of failure to adjust to normal school life. Socially maladjusted children are found in all grades from kindergarten to the college, and their problems vary in some respects with the age of the individuals. There are likely to be misconceptions about the frequency of behavior problems at different ages because

²¹ Merle R. Sumption, Dorothy Norris, and Lewis Terman, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950), pp. 271-279.

schools and parents are more aware of the extreme problems of older children and often overlook those of young children. Agencies within the community or school that have been established for the study of behavior and that are able to identify and diagnose socially maladjusted children are known by various names—child-study departments, psychological clinics, child-guidance clinics, mental-hygiene departments, and institutes for juvenile research. In all of them the emphasis is upon the adjustment of children to their environment. School systems also provide the services of attendance departments, school social workers, school counselors, and others, with more emphasis upon school attendance and adjustment to school conditions. There is no adequate substitute for the professionally trained staff of a good child-guidance clinic for identifying and diagnosing the difficulties of socially maladjusted children.

The important elements of a good program include (1) providing means for the initial referral of cases by teachers or parents, (2) gathering the important data relating to the case, (3) evaluating the effects of observed conditions upon the child's behavior, (4) making suggestions of remedial measures to improve the child's adjustment, and (5) re-evaluating the case to see if the difficulty has subsided. Good diagnostic procedures for identifying socially maladjusted children must provide facts as to the child's intellectual capacity, for which purpose psychological tests will be required. In addition, personality and adjustment inventories should be made. No accurate identification of a socially maladjusted child is possible without using case-history methods. The case history should contain personal data secured from the parents, the child, the school, and other sources; facts concerning the health and physical conditions of the child; information about his personal habits and recreational interests; teachers' impressions of the home atmosphere; and facts concerning the child's school adjustment. Only when such facts in the individual case are known can they be effectively evaluated as to their effect on the child's behavior.

The agency in every community that has the capacity for dealing most effectively with the problems of socially maladjusted children is the school system. Special school services that supplement and facilitate the work of the regular teacher are an important educational provision made by schools for preventing and correcting social maladjustment. Among such organizations are child-study departments, child-guidance clinics, psychological bureaus, pupil personnel divisions, and others. They employ pediatricians, psychiatrists, psychologists, school social workers, home and school visitors, and attendance supervisors.

The special class or special room in a regular school is another plan for educating the socially maladjusted. The school work to be done should depend upon the individual needs of the members of the class, and opportunities should be offered for pupils to try out various courses.

Some school systems within the past three decades, particularly those in the larger cities, have established special schools for socially maladjusted children. Although at first thought it might seem that the behavior problems of such children would be intensified by transfer to a special school, it has been the experience of these schools that serious types of misbehavior are diminished. This is no doubt because the special school, concentrating on remedial measures, gives more attention to physical and mental health, and maintains a more competent staff of teachers of remedial reading, social workers, psychologists, and other adjustment workers. The special educational program is adapted to the particular needs of maladjusted individuals, with emphasis upon activities that prove an effective antidote for emotional disturbances. Special schools for social adjustment usually enroll only pupils who are so maladjusted as to need careful mental and physical examinations. These schools make it possible for the maladjusted to enjoy success in school work instead of experiencing the accumulation of feelings of failure that characterized their work in the regular schools where their unusual needs cannot be met.

SUMMARY

Exceptional children are entitled to the advantage of a special educational program that will permit them to develop to the limit of their capacities. No group can be neglected; the needs of each one must be considered just as important as the needs of every other. All children—the physically handicapped, the mentally different, and the socially maladjusted, together with the normal children—have a right to an equal educational opportunity, no matter how many special services the schools must provide in order to equalize that opportunity for those who are exceptional.

The special education program for exceptional children should be a part of and not apart from the general educational program. The tendency to substitute specific trade training for courses in general education is no more justified for exceptional children than it is for normal children. Some school systems provide special schools, others special classes in regular schools, and still others special services within regular classes to care for exceptional children. The particular organization is less important than the program and the philosophy upon which the program is based.

Schools should provide for early identification and early diagnosis of all exceptional children. The earlier a case is identified and diagnosed, the sooner remedial measures can be applied. Delay always aggravates special cases.

Guidance services must be made an integral part of a special education program. All exceptional children, even more than normal children, are in need of physical, mental, and emotional guidance. They need educational, vocational, and personal counsel throughout their school experience.

A program for educating exceptional children must extend beyond the school building and the usual school program. The influence of the special services, classes, and special schools must reach into the home and the community. Special schools

often should provide longer hours and a longer term, as well as more services, to help the exceptional child.

The school must educate the parents of exceptional children as well as the children. No special education program can be successful unless it enlists and secures the co-operation of the parents and others who contact exceptional children. The community resources and services of value to exceptional children must be co-ordinated with the school's program. *No special education program should be isolated in a school or school system.*

Any program of education of exceptional children will be conditioned by the selection of properly qualified and trained personnel. Teachers and other workers should have the personal qualifications suitable for the task in hand and should have the training that is necessary for teaching the particular type of child they are serving. In addition, they should have sufficient experience to be able to handle exceptional children without becoming confused by lack of familiarity with the mere mechanics of teaching.

No program of special education should be attempted in any community without first making a survey to determine the extent and nature of the local problem. Expert advice should be sought and the program should be built on sound educational principles.

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The School Plant as a Learning Environment

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL BUILDING IN THE United States is a symbol of democracy. Without public education, democratic society probably would not last very long. In order to make public education possible, school buildings must be provided on suitable sites, properly equipped, and well cared for. Of course, what takes place in the school building is of greater importance than the school plant itself; yet without buildings accessible to all the young people of school age, public education would be only an ideal and not a reality. Most of the states have enacted laws governing the acquisition of school sites, the construction of school buildings, and the transportation at public expense of children whose place of residence is too distant from a public school to be reached by walking.

Today the investment of the public in school plants throughout the country runs into staggering figures. It probably exceeds that of all the rest of the world. Certainly the acquisition, operation, and maintenance of public school plants is a major expenditure in every community. The expansion of the plant to meet the changing needs of education presents a serious problem wherever the taxable wealth of a community is low.

It has been estimated that approximately fourteen billion dollars will be required within the next few years to expand and develop school plants in the United States to meet the needs of growing boys and girls.¹ Some states are able to spend many times as much as other states for the development of school plants, and communities within states vary even more. Because of this varying taxable wealth, school buildings vary from state to state and from community to community in appearance, in quality of construction, and in adaptability to the educational program of the school. When comparisons are made of buildings as learning environments, the variability is increased even more.

THE MEANING OF SCHOOL PLANT

The school plant is a broad term that is used to include more than the school building itself. It includes the school site, its location, the playground that should be adjacent to the building, and all of the land upon which the building is located. The importance of the school site as an aspect of planning an educational program for the elementary school is a phase of the school building program. It needs to be studied in order that the optimum advantages may be derived from the educational environment of remodeled and new school buildings.² The requirements of site and available space vary with curricula and educational programs, with the type of community and the space available, and with the other community facilities and agencies. School plant refers not only to the building as a whole, but to the classrooms, special purpose rooms, and the administrative rooms as well. Included in the idea of school plant are the mechanical facilities such as school lighting, both natural and artificial, the electrical facilities, the plumbing and sanitary facilities, and the heating and ventilating equip-

¹ *Citizens Look at Our Schoolhouses*. United States Office of Education, Federal Security Agency (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1951), p. 11.

² "School Plant and Equipment," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. XXI, No. 1 (Washington: National Education Association, February, 1951), p. 17.

ment. School plant operation and management, including school housekeeping and school plant maintenance and rehabilitation, must also be considered whenever the school plant is viewed as a learning environment. All of these features of a school system should be planned to provide efficiently for the educational program and the needs of the boys and girls of the district served by the school plant. Because the school population, the educational program, and the needs of the community are subject to change, the school plant seldom fully meets the requirements expected of it. In order to reduce the disparity between the existing school plant and the services it is expected to provide, plant modification and development are from time to time required.

In considering the school plant as a learning environment, it must also be thought of in functional terms. The school plant must be considered as the child's home during school hours. It must be thought of as a laboratory where children learn by doing certain things. It can also be considered as a youth center and as a civic enterprise for young people providing recreational, library, and cultural facilities for their growth. The school plant must also serve as a community social center for adults as well as children, and the modern trend in school plant operation is to have it used much more widely by all the people of the community for out-of-school as well as in-school hours and for more than the usual five school days of the week and nine school months of the year.

PROVIDING SCHOOL PLANTS

The problems of providing suitable school plants can be solved because the different states have laws that enable a school board to include in its annual tax levy appropriations for the purchase of sites for schools and for the maintenance and improvement of its school plants, and to enact by-laws for the enlargement or replacement of buildings, sites, and plant equipment.

Because the school plant is a long-term capital investment

of a community and is usually provided through bonded debt, the general tendency too often has been to permit parts of the school plant to become fully depreciated before steps are taken toward replacement. As a result, a substantial part of the school plant in many districts is not infrequently found to be substandard and out of date before the community becomes aware of the fact that its outmoded school facilities are a handicap to school services that have undergone development with educational and community changes.

Such a condition with respect to the school plant in any community should be viewed as a signal to action. Insensitivity to school plant inadequacy may result in serious losses to the children whose education is secured within an inferior school environment. Try as they may, administrative officers, teachers, and other school workers cannot fully compensate for the substandard learning environment of outmoded school buildings, restricted school grounds, and antiquated equipment. The effect on school children of substandard classroom lighting can be appreciated by anyone who will take the pains to compare the working conditions in schools with a low level of lighting and in schools with a high level of modern lighting. The lack of sanitary toilet facilities generally characteristic of obsolete or poorly planned buildings; of proper lunchroom facilities; of provisions for indoor and outdoor recreation and physical education; of modern facilities for library, arts and crafts, music, science, visual aids, and the auditorium arts are recognized all too frequently only after several generations of children have been deprived of the opportunities that the school community is responsible for providing.

Although all the school buildings of a particular community cannot always bear a recent construction date, they can, if functionally planned, remain modern in many respects until well advanced in depreciation. Too many school sites have been selected in the past without full consideration of educational and community needs, too many buildings have been constructed from hastily prepared plans, and the school equip-

ment is all too frequently that which has survived the wear of many years of usage. School plants so located, constructed, and equipped are frequently well advanced in depreciation before they are even available for use.

In order to avoid the continuous adaptation of the school organization and educational program to school plant restrictions, long-term planning based on community problems and educational needs is required. It is the responsibility of any school community to provide a suitable school plant as a learning environment for its boys and girls. It is the duty of the teachers and principals to provide the educational leadership in the community so that citizens in general will be better able to meet their responsibility for providing a suitable school plant.

SCHOOL SITES

The site for a school plant should be selected so that it is located in correct relationship to the other physical facilities of a community such as parks, health centers, libraries, streets, highways, and residential housing. The site for a plant should be located near the present and probable future center of the school population to be served. It is always desirable to have an elementary school located within walking distance of the pupils. Three quarters of a mile is generally considered a reasonable maximum distance for elementary pupils to walk to school.³ Sites should be selected to avoid overlapping of areas served by other plants. The school site should provide safe and healthful conditions for pupils and teachers; freedom from disturbing noises and obnoxious odors; pleasing surroundings; and available water, gas, electric, sewer, fire-protection, and transportation facilities.⁴

The size of any school site should be determined by the type of educational program contemplated. In general, modern

³ National Council on Schoolhouse Construction. *Guide for Planning School Plants*. National Council on School House Construction (Nashville, Tennessee: Peabody College, 1949), p. 18.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 18.

school plants require much larger sites than were formerly required. The National Council on Schoolhouse Construction suggests a minimum site of five acres plus an additional acre for each one hundred pupils of predicted ultimate maximum enrollment.⁸ If a school site is located adjacent to or as a part of a park or recreational area, its value is enhanced. A rectangular site approximately one and one half times as long as wide is preferable although an irregularly shaped site can be utilized if the design of the building is adapted to the site used.

The site of the plant should be fairly level with the building located near the high point so that the ground can be sloped away from the building. Drainage and erosion must be considered, and the elevation of the site should preferably be above rather than below the elevation of adjacent land, streets, highways, and other buildings.

The school site should be easily accessible from roads, sidewalks, and streets, and yet away from arterial highways, railroads, and other heavy traffic. Walks and drives on the school site should be distinctly and effectively separated. No driveway should encircle a school building, and intersections of walks and drives should be avoided, if possible, by having drives connect with side or rear streets, thus minimizing any loss of campus or play space for driveways and service parking.

A school site should be beautified because an attractive school ground will promote the general cultural development of the school child and generate a pride in the school on the part of the child and the community. A well-designed and pleasing building needs an attractive and useful setting to enhance its value in an educational program. Lawns, shrubs, trees, and flowers, especially perennials, are desirable means of beautifying a school site.

A site should also include space for group games, individual sports and recreation, with attention given to the special needs of various age groups of children enrolled in the school. Sand boxes, slides, and jungle gyms are desirable for the primary

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

and lower grades. Shuffleboard and hopscotch courts are desirable for older children. Fields for touch football, soccer, soft ball, and hockey, as well as tennis courts, are often provided. In planning space for recreational activities and in providing playground equipment, precautions must be taken to insure maximum safety. The surfacing of the play and recreational areas of a school site requires study in order to insure the greatest possible educational values from such facilities. All playground space and equipment should be determined on the basis of its value to the educational program of the school. Economy of space is also a necessary consideration where the school site is limited in area.

THE SCHOOL BUILDING

School buildings are generally classified first according to the degree of safety from the hazards of fire that they provide. The safest building is one that is fireproof. Next in order of degree of safety are those of fire-resistant construction; that is, those built of noncombustible materials such as stone, brick, and reinforced concrete. These buildings are slow to burn if floors, ceilings, walls, and stairs are of fire-resistant materials. When roofs, floors, ceilings, walls, and stairs are of mill construction, buildings are combustible; that is, they will burn quickly under certain conditions, and are therefore considered hazardous unless restricted to single-story construction. Most recent trends in materials and design in school building construction reflect the changing needs in elementary school education. In order to keep school buildings functional in design and flexible in their purpose, they should be simply designed and structurally safe, and unnecessary items should be eliminated. Furthermore, the design and materials should be well integrated, with certain elements of the plan standardized to prevent waste. New methods of construction should be used to meet community needs efficiently.

The tendency at the present time is to restrict elementary school buildings to one story because this type of construction

is less dangerous from such hazards as fire, wind, and earthquake. Furthermore, a one-story building integrates good design with functional use and safe construction. However, in congested districts it may still be necessary to use two-story buildings. Figures 9 through 12 present four different views of a modern one-story elementary school at Riverside, Illinois. This building is typical of the newer types of elementary school construction found in many sections of the United States. The building was designed by Perkins and Will, Architects-Engineers, Chicago, Illinois.

Larger classrooms and more space for activities are being stressed by the present educational philosophy. Although former standards called for 15 square feet per pupil, the current requirements call for 30 square feet with rooms about 30 feet square for thirty children.* Not only are rooms larger in modern schools, but corridors are wider and unobstructed and lead directly to the outside. Modern stairways, when used, are in reality interior fire escapes because they are separated from the corridors on each floor by fireproof doors. Many buildings are also planned so that additional facilities may be added as they are needed without destroying the unity of the original building. *At least one wall of each classroom should be a continuous expanse of windows without brick piers between them to cast shadows in the classroom.*

In short, just as elementary school educational practice has found no pattern that fits the needs of all communities, all groups of children, and all philosophies of teaching, so there is no specific design for the school building that is universally accepted. However, it is recognized that the building should be designed to offer the space, comfort, and equipment that the educational program requires; and citizens, teachers, and school administrators should all aid in implementing the program by planning the type of building needed. Classrooms,

* "School Plant and Equipment," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. XXI, No. 1 (Washington: National Education Association, February, 1951), p. 31.

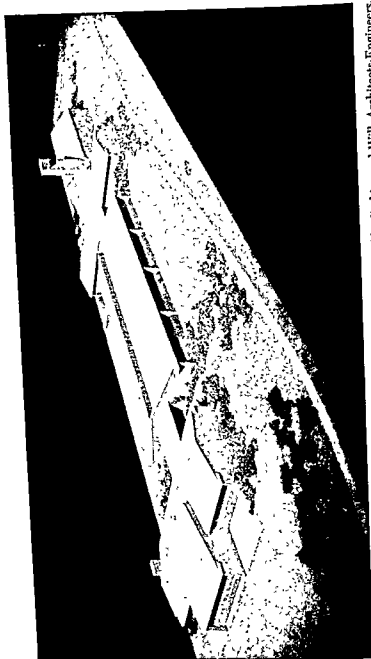


Fig. 9. Model of Blythe Park Elementary School, Riverside, Illinois. Designed by Perkins and Will, Architects-Engineers, Chicago, Illinois. (Photograph by Hedrich-Blessing Studio, Chicago.)

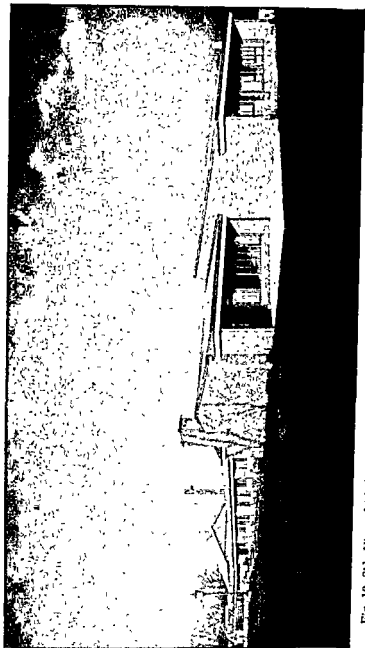


Fig. 10. Side View of Blythe Park Elementary School. (Photograph by Hedrich-Blessing Studio, Chicago.)

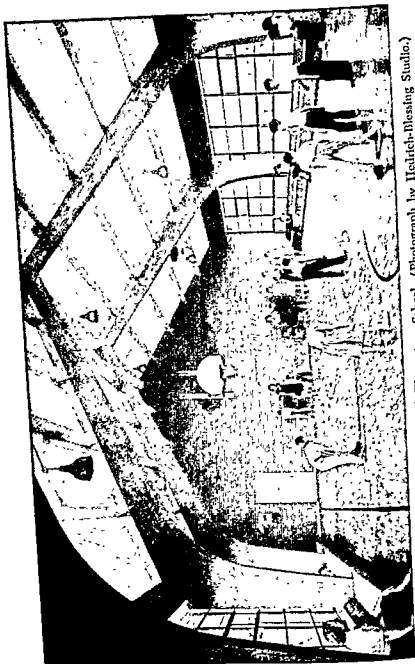


Fig. 11. Multipurpose Room, Blythe Park Elementary School. (Photograph by Hedrich-Blessing Studio.)

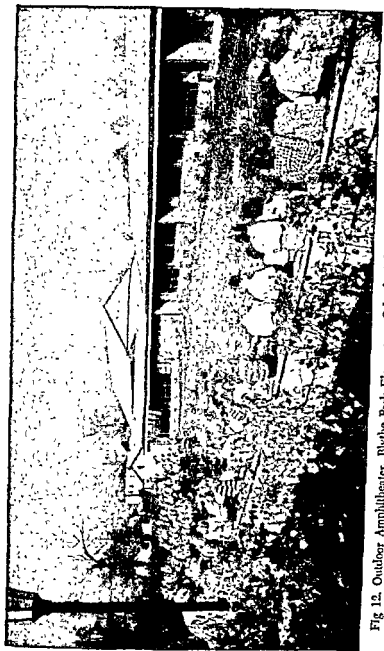


Fig 12. Outdoor Amphitheater, Blythe Park Elementary School. (Photograph by Hedrich-Blessing Studio.)

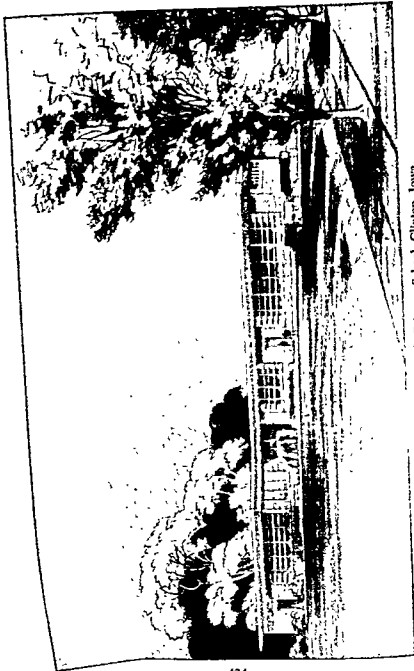


Fig. 13. Perspective of Lincoln Primary School, Clinton, Iowa.

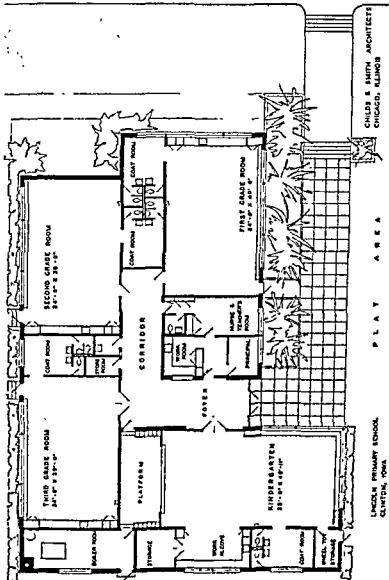


Fig. 14. Floor Plan of Lincoln Primary School, Clinton, Iowa.

therefore, should be designed to meet the needs of children of elementary school age who participate in the formal and informal, the group and individual, activities that characterize the educational program.

Primary grade classrooms are now as nearly self-contained as possible. They usually provide a work center with benches, sink, and tools; a library corner with chairs, tables, and cases; a science center with aquarium and exhibit space; an art corner with easels, finger painting, and clay tables; a bulletin board and news space; a drinking fountain and individual toilets; also some storage space planned in terms of primary materials to be stored; and a suitable well-lighted cloakroom area. The floor plan and artist's perspective of Primary School, Clinton, Iowa, was designed by Child and Smith, Architects, Chicago, Illinois. This type of building is planned to house children of kindergarten and grades 1 through 4 in neighborhoods considerably removed from community elementary schools. Intermediate graded classrooms are usually located apart from the primary rooms, may also be more or less self-contained units, and will also provide special instructional rooms, such as shops, studios, science, music, and other indoor activity rooms. Kindergarten rooms are similar to primary rooms, are usually entirely self-contained, and in addition may contain space for resting during midmorning and midafternoon naps with folding cots, and should have a separate entry to a special outdoor play space. Kindergarten rooms should also be designed so as to keep the floor warm at all times because some of the activities of a kindergarten take place on the floor.

Modern trends also indicate that elementary schools have floors that are covered with light-colored tile; have doors, cabinets, and desk tops of light-colored wood; have green writing boards to avoid glare; have bulletin board or tackboard space placed at the pupils' eye level; have built-in cupboards and cabinets to store all types of instructional material; have facilities for the use of motion picture equipment, film strip ma-

chines, and radio equipment; and sufficient work space for small group shop work of different kinds.

Every elementary school also needs special purpose rooms that are designed to meet the schooltime needs of children and to facilitate the after-school use by young people and adults. Such features will include separate gymnasium and assembly hall facilities, the latter seating approximately 40 to 50 per cent of the school population; a centered library with workroom; a general elementary shop; a lunchroom varying in size according to the needs of the community; clinic rooms for medical and dental work; proper rooms for doing pupil personnel work; and an office suite, with room for reception of visitors, space for the general office work, and a smaller private office where conferences may be held.

Many elementary school buildings also make provision for those children who are exceptional but are not so seriously handicapped as to be unable to attend school with normal children if the proper facilities are provided. Among the facilities for such children may be found special lunchroom services, more quiet game rooms, and space for rest. The visually handicapped will require special attention to lighting and color schemes; those with defective hearing need special acoustical treatment of walls and floors, and sometimes hearing aids and audio training devices. Children with speech defects or orthopedic or cardiac handicaps, if not severe, and slow learners may also need special attention if housed in the regular elementary school building. All of these special rooms will need more space per pupil than ordinary rooms, and although classes may only approximate half or even a quarter the size of regular classes, the rooms should have a minimum size of two thirds that of an ordinary classroom.

Heating and ventilating facilities. School plants must provide facilities for protecting the health of those who will use them. In addition they must provide comfortable conditions conducive to learning. Heating, ventilating, lighting, and sanitary

conditions are all factors that help create a stimulating environment in which learning can take place.

The temperature, the relative humidity, and ventilation all affect not only the comfort and health of children but also their mental acuity and scholastic achievement. There must be a supply of heat when the outside temperature demands it; there must be means of removing excess heat and unpleasant odors; there must be means of providing fresh air, and some means of regulating the amount of moisture in the air if optimum study and work conditions are to result. Classrooms should be maintained at a temperature of 68° to 70° F.; shops, corridors, laboratories, and other activity rooms 65° to 68° F.; while shower rooms and swimming pools need 80° to 83° F. Fresh outdoor air is needed and where conditions demand it air-cleaning is essential. A relative humidity of 45 per cent is usually recommended. Most modern schools use systems whereby temperatures, relative humidity, and ventilation are all controlled in a combined heating and ventilating system. Although hand controls are sometimes used and may be more economical to install, they are much less efficient than automatic, pneumatic, or electric controls. The use of germicidal lamps in classrooms to help control disease is not generally found and must be considered experimental.

A modern school should also have its heating and ventilating systems so arranged that certain sections of the building can be used without going to the expense of heating the entire building. This is particularly true when the school has multipurpose rooms that are used during out-of-school hours by the school community.

Plant illumination. Many factors enter into the problem of providing a good visual environment for the work of the school. Schools are lighted by using natural daylight and by installing means for providing artificial light usually electrical in source. Most schools depend upon daylight for their prime source to create brightness and use artificial light to supplement daylight when acceptable brightness levels cannot be maintained with-

Sanitary and plumbing facilities. Water supply, toilet facilities, and proper sewage disposal are all essential for the comfort and convenience of school children. The condition of these units and their availability all affect the health, comfort, and habits of pupils. No school can do efficient educational work without considering these factors.

The water supply should be adequate, safe, and palatable. Elementary schools need at least twenty-five gallons per pupil per day for all purposes. Drinking fountains should be provided in the ratio of one to seventy-five pupils with a minimum of at least one fountain on each floor. They should be conveniently located, recessed if possible, and not in toilet rooms or attached to lavatories or sinks. The height of the fountain should be governed by the age of the children who will use it. Fountains should also be provided on the playground area and these should be of the frost-proof type. All fountains should be sturdily constructed and of a type that will not permit the mouth of the child to come in contact with the nozzle or permit water to fall back on the nozzle.

Toilet rooms should not be located in basements, and one for each sex should be located on each floor. Entrances to toilet rooms should be designated so as to prevent visibility from the corridor. Toilet room ventilation should be provided with separate ducts, and sufficient natural and artificial lighting should be available. Walls, floors, and stall partitions should be of impervious materials to facilitate cleaning. Soap dispensers, toilet paper holders, waste containers, mirrors, bookshelves, and hand drying facilities are all considered essential items in a modern school. In elementary schools, one water closet for every thirty girls or sixty boys, and one urinal for every thirty boys are considered a minimum. One lavatory for every fifty pupils should be provided. Additional toilet room facilities should be provided for the faculty, and separate facilities for public use should be located near the auditorium, gymnasium, offices, and other parts of the building used by the public. The

size of all toilet room fixtures should be governed by the age of those for whose use they are planned.

Sewage disposal should meet all local and state code requirements. If connections can be made to a municipal system, it should include proper sizing and pitch of sewage mains. If no municipal system is available, an independent system should be designed by a qualified sanitary engineer. Grease traps should be provided in kitchen and lunchroom suites.

Acoustical and audiovisual facilities. Hearing ease and noise control are essential to good school work; and sound control, formerly limited to auditoriums, music, and other special rooms, is now considered essential in all parts of a school plant. Reference has been made to the locations of school plants on sites free from disturbing noises of railroads, heavy traffic, and industrial activities. However, all parts of a school building should be constructed so that noises will be reduced and sounds controlled. Certain units or activities should be more or less isolated from classrooms and other activities. Many noises can be reduced at their source by using sound-insulating bases and by providing for absorption. The size, shape, height, and construction of many of the units in a building are factors in controlling sound. Noisy corridors can be controlled with proper floor coverings and by acoustically treating ceilings and upper corridor walls.

In classrooms and libraries, ease of hearing and auditory comfort are essential. Teachers and pupils should be heard distinctly in any part of the room when speaking in an ordinary tone. Walls and ceilings should be covered with acoustical surface materials that can be painted repeatedly without loss of their sound absorbing qualities. Noises can be reduced by the use of quiet floor coverings and by using tackboards for some of the harder chalkboards.

Lunchrooms, especially dining rooms, present special problems; and attention should be given to the qualities of floors, table tops, ceilings, and walls with reference to their ability to absorb sound and reduce noise.

Interior acoustical treatment will help reduce the noises coming in from playgrounds and from shops. Here, however, the location of such special units with reference to sounds must be given consideration when planning a school plant and selecting its site.

Because the modern educational program calls for many audiovisual aids in teaching, a modern school plant must make provision for their use. This calls for electrical outlets and means for darkening rooms and acoustically treating classrooms, the auditorium, or a special audiovisual laboratory. In addition, such equipment as screens, sound projectors, film strip projectors, and radio and television receivers must be provided. Some schools provide a central sound and communication system, usually as a part of the office suite.

A modern school will also be provided with electric clocks, a program clock, and a signal or call system of some kind. Bells, chimes, buzzers, and lights are all used for this purpose.

Safety features. The school plant should be located, designed, and equipped to provide every safeguard to the life, limb, and health of all who use it. Teachers and principals have no greater responsibility than to operate and utilize a school plant in a safe and sane manner. In addition, the local school officials are responsible for preserving and protecting the community's school plant investment. The school building should not only be structurally safe but fireproof or at least fire-resistant as well. All electric wiring and connections should comply with the Underwriters Code. All panel boxes should be of the safety front type, and motors should be shielded. Fire alarm systems should be carefully designed, should permit operation from all convenient locations in corridors and in particularly hazardous locations such as shops, kitchens, and boiler rooms. Fire extinguishers and other fire fighting equipment should be installed wherever necessary.

Carefully planning for traffic circulation in a building is essential as a safety measure, but it also will enhance the educational service value of a school plant. The objectives in plan-

ning for safe and convenient circulation include emergency evacuation, reducing travel distances to the minimum, eliminating traffic congestion, reducing disturbances, and providing supervision of pupil traffic.

Corridors should be wide, should contain no projections, and should terminate on a stairway or exit. No building of two or more stories should have less than two stairways and no two stairways should have a common landing. Stairways should run preferably at right angles to the corridors, should be built of incombustible materials, and should be so located that there is a direct exit from the ground floor.

Exit doors should open outward, should be provided with panic bolt locks, and every building of one or more rooms should have at least two exits. Exits and stairs should be located so that at least one stairway or exit will be less than 100 feet away from the doorway of every classroom. Suitable exit signs should be provided with illuminated lettering. Separate exits and entrances in order to segregate older and younger pupils are desirable.

The location of entrances and exits of buildings and playgrounds should be so arranged that children do not need to go through the building to get to a playground. Furthermore, entrances and exits should be placed to avoid conflicts with street traffic. Student traffic to and from toilet rooms, playgrounds, lunchrooms, and classrooms will be facilitated by carefully planning a school building with reference to the problems of pupil traffic.

Fire escape routes located in enclosed fireproof stairwells provide the safest type of exit facilities. Fire escapes attached to the outside of a building, although sometimes necessary, are poor substitutes for a safe fire well stairway. Glazed doors and windows located in or on the way to stairwells should be fitted with approved wired safety glass. Yard fences should be free from barbs or sharp points, floor surfaces should be of the non-skid type, and hot water temperatures should be controlled as additional safety measures.

. Shops and shop equipment, the auditorium and stage, the kitchen and lunchroom, the gymnasium and swimming pool, the locker rooms, and the heating and ventilating plants all require special consideration from the standpoint of pupil health and safety.

Age and depreciation of school plant. The age and the amount of depreciation of a school plant are factors that affect the value of the plant as a learning environment for boys and girls. It is not good public policy for a modern community to house its school children in outmoded school buildings. The effect of the environment provided by old and hazardous buildings on the physical, mental, and aesthetic development of children who are housed therein during the formative period of their lives is unfavorable and is a definite obstacle to good education. Such buildings should be replaced or relocated on new sites because they are a liability not only to public education but also to the economic and civic progress of a community. Every community should give serious consideration to the problem of replacing obsolete and outworn school plants.

Every school plant depreciates with time and use. This fact imposes upon a community the problem of keeping the school plant up to date. Many buildings need rehabilitation and every building needs continuous work if it is to be kept up with modern trends in education. A building designed to house comfortably a certain number of children becomes depreciated by virtue of the fact of overcrowding. Such buildings must be rehabilitated in order that children can have school plant facilities commensurate with the needs of modern education. School officials and communities should develop programs that will provide for continuous reconditioning of school buildings, provided the structures can be materially improved without excessive cost and their period of future service extended sufficiently to justify the expenditure required for the necessary rehabilitation. Teachers, principals, and other school officials must be prepared to give a community and its board of educa-

tion factual data in support of a program for preventing plant depreciation from curtailing an educational program.

In supplying factual data necessary to rehabilitate and modernize school plants, it must be remembered that frequent adaptation and modernization are needed to prevent school plants from failing as essential elements in education. Some tasks must be handled as the need arises, others can be scheduled. Experience indicates that rehabilitation and modernization occur most often in certain areas or parts of the school plant. Remodeling is commonly thought of as a change in the structure of a building; and some remodeling is usually done as a part of rehabilitation or modernization, but all remodeling is not necessarily rehabilitation or modernization. Remodeling may be limited to one part of a building, but rehabilitation generally covers the whole building. Modernization may involve remodeling and rehabilitation but is designed primarily for the purpose of adapting existing facilities to meet the needs of a changing educational program. Remodeling or rehabilitating designed to stabilize or replace existing structures is not necessarily modernization. Repair programs are just what the name implies; that is, repairing existing parts or facilities of a school plant. Excellent suggestions for remodeling, rehabilitating, modernizing, and repairing school plants can be found in *School Buildings*, Bulletin No. 17, 1950, of the United States Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C.

School plants should be designed for future enrollment. A school plant should be located and designed to meet future as well as present school enrollment. School officials therefore must be able to forecast future enrollment. This implies a study of birth data and the movements of population. Definite trends in each can be noted. Elementary school enrollments generally are influenced by changes in birth rates. There are also movements of population, particularly younger families, to new locations. On the basis of studies of birth rates and population changes, future school enrollments can be predicted

and plant facilities adjusted to meet the enrollment needs. This situation, wherever it exists, will necessitate the most careful consideration by school officials if the school plant is to meet the demands of the following decade. Fortunately, a community usually does not have to face the problem of plant enlargement at all grade levels at the same time and can solve these problems at successive grade levels as they arise.

Greater utilization of school plant facilities can be obtained in some instances by lengthening the school day or through the adoption of half-day sessions, but the lengthening of the day is not feasible for elementary schools and parents strenuously object to half-day sessions. Overcrowding by increasing class size is sometimes resorted to but cannot be condoned. The utilization of some school plants can often be slightly increased by transporting pupils, but this can scarcely be considered as a solution to the problem of increased building utilization. Generally school officials and communities must plan to increase their school plants through additional construction.

Whenever such construction is contemplated, the school building should be no longer regarded as a structure that provides services for children only five or six hours a day for five days of the week, and for thirty-six or thirty-eight weeks of the year. The building should be available whenever needed as a neighborhood center for all of the community, adults as well as children, who desire to use it for educational and recreational purposes. Education is no longer restricted to the work of the classroom. The community itself is a force in the education of children as well as the home, the church, and the school. It is therefore desirable that the public school and its surrounding grounds, as well as being the center of learning for children, should be developed as a social center, with the school gymnasium, playgrounds, auditorium, and shops open after school hours for cultural, vocational, and recreational activities of all the adults, youth, and children of a community. Development along the lines of this concept of the school is essential

to reawaken interest and increase participation in neighborhood activities. The development of neighborhood consciousness and pride is fundamental to achieving sound social relationships. The adoption of the "neighborhood concept" for elementary schools will insure a school district a future plant that should render the maximum service at the minimum cost.

OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE

Operation of plant. The operation of a school plant is usually under the direction of a chief engineer, a superintendent of building and grounds, or some similar officer. Such an official is usually responsible to the superintendent of schools or in some cases directly to the board of education. He is generally responsible for the operation and maintenance of the heating, ventilating, plumbing, and electrical installations, and the custodial care of all the public school plants of the district. Such departments usually employ a maintenance staff of electricians, plumbers, steamfitters, utility men, and other laborers for the upkeep of the equipment and a custodial staff of engineers, firemen, and janitors for operating purposes.

In general, such an operation department must be concerned with selecting the operation and maintenance personnel which is efficient and a fairly representative cross-section of the general population of the district. Wages paid employees of operating divisions should compare favorably with those paid similar employees in the community. Every school district should have some systematic plan for the appraisal of the operating and maintenance personnel, for the study of work loads, and for a careful review of work and time schedules of operating employees. There is also need for close co-operation between operating and building departments with respect to the interchange of personnel for the purpose of providing year-round employment for a large number of operating employees.

Complete physical examinations should be a condition of employment of operating personnel, and mental health examinations should be required where evidence of mental dis-

ability is shown. Promotions should be based on seniority and merit as recommended by the head of the department concerned. Provision should also be made for in-service training of operating personnel, particularly in the principles of heating and ventilating, public relations, safety and fire hazards, and in relationships with pupils, teachers, parents, and community. It is also wise to have most school caretakers qualified to render first-aid when required to do so.

School plant operation and school care are a joint responsibility on the one hand of principal, teachers, and pupils and of engineers, janitors, and caretakers on the other. Teachers and pupils have definite responsibility for practicing good housekeeping. Waste paper should not be left on floors; pupils' desks, work tables, and cupboards should be clean and tidy; chalk rails should be cleared of chalk and brushes; window ledges should be free of books and plants; and storerooms should be orderly and neat.

Whenever school buildings are old and have substandard features and when classroom equipment is nearing obsolescence, problems of administration and care are created that require the fullest understanding and co-operation on the part of the educational personnel and the operating and maintenance workers. Unless all who work in such a school plant co-operate and their efforts are co-ordinated, the education of boys and girls will suffer.

Proper supervision of the operation of a school plant is necessary to secure effective use of time and resources. A good program of supervision will include written work schedules, careful and detailed inspection, accounting for materials and supplies, and maintenance of safe working conditions. There should also be provision for a properly equipped working space for operating employees. Furthermore, sound principles of management should be followed in the operation of the plant, in seeing that policies are formulated and made known to all concerned, in developing procedures, and in setting standards of performance. Devices that will prove helpful are (1) main-

taining inventories to prevent loss of property, prevent duplication of work and materials, and aid in replacement; (2) making systematic inspections periodically to be sure that the quality of work done meets the standards set and that school plants are operated efficiently; and (3) budgeting of supplies and operating personnel.

It is also good operating practice to purchase labor-saving equipment, because the most expensive may in the long run be most economical whereas less expensive equipment may require the greatest repairs and the earliest replacement. New methods and new equipment should be tried whenever it is recommended by recognized authorities. Only qualified men should be employed, and they should be paid because they are qualified. The days when operating personnel could be just anyone are gone.

The school plant should be considered an educational instrument, and its value is determined in no small part by the way it is operated. Its operation must help to implement the educational program the community wants for its children. A good program of school plant operation reflects good school administration.

Maintenance of plant. What teachers and pupils do, how they work, and whether or not they enjoy school life are determined by the way a school plant is maintained. The original cost of a school plant has little meaning to pupils, but its condition and the way its maintenance affects their comfort is what counts with them. The goal of a maintenance program is to keep the school plant in condition for effective education. Good maintenance is justified by its effect on the morale of teachers, the attitude of pupils, and the interests of parents in supporting the educational program of their children.

The efficient maintenance of the school plant in a school district of any size is a business in itself. In a large city it is a big business. To repair breakage, to replace worn out parts, and to prevent a plant breakdown in thousands of classrooms and in scores of buildings is no extracurricular chore. If climatic

conditions are rigorous, repairs must be made quickly if a school is to remain in session. Experience has shown that a school board cannot rely on individuals or firms for prompt attention to maintenance needs. Likewise it has been found that many repairs and replacements can be made more economically and efficiently by employing and training a maintenance staff. Such staffs consist of painters, carpenters, electricians, machinists, plasterers, glazers, common laborers, and others. The responsibility for keeping these men employed on necessary work and for maintaining high standards of work is usually entrusted to a superintendent of grounds and buildings or some similar official. Usually he receives requisitions for repairs or replacements from school principals and must then prepare or have prepared the job specifications, secure the materials, supervise the work, and account for the cost of the item to proper officials.

Good maintenance practices indicate that the maintenance of a school plant should be the responsibility of one department rather than having two or more officials with overlapping authority for maintaining a plant. Furthermore, in a system large enough to warrant it, the maintenance work should continue throughout the year by maintaining a staff of workers of different trades as indicated above. In small systems, minor repairs can often be made by custodians who have some skill in maintenance work.

Careful periodic inspections of school plants will reveal maintenance needs and will prevent many emergencies. It will also make possible some system of determining priority of needs. When needs are revealed, properly detailed specifications can be drawn in order to insure high quality work being done. Whenever work must be done, well-qualified dependable mechanics should be employed. Good maintenance practice also dictates that the right number of men at the right time should be employed and provided with sufficient and proper materials. A school system should also provide adequate shop

facilities, essential materials and parts, and good tools in sufficient quantity to do the job.

Unless an emergency develops, it is considered best practice to save up small jobs and combine them into one contract instead of contracting piecemeal. Specifications should be kept up to date, but should not be so overstandardized and rigid as to eliminate desirable bidders. *Competitive bidding* should be used and not necessarily confined to a policy of limiting it to local bidders. Specialists should be employed when necessary rather than having an unskilled mechanic experiment with valuable equipment. In the long run it is less costly and time consuming to bring in someone who knows how to do a repair job expertly. As soon as repairs are made or replacements installed, the work should be carefully inspected.

Any school system will also find it economical to stock supplies and materials for making minor repairs and small replacements. Many a small item such as a fuse, nut, or bolt has cost a school system several dollars because a maintenance man had to go downtown to buy perhaps a 25-cent item. Large quantities of such maintenance items can be purchased cheaper in quantity, and centralized purchasing for several plants will save time and money.

A school system should also do some testing of materials. Paints, floor seals, soaps, cleaning chemicals, brushes, and even fuels can be and should be tested by those who have the responsibility of maintaining a school plant. A large school system should have a factory-type building for a maintenance shop where many items of equipment can be repaired, where stores and supplies can be housed, and where materials and machinery can be tested.

If a school plant is well maintained and kept in good repair, it is easier to keep clean, to heat, and to ventilate. A well-kept plant will add to the morale of pupils and teachers and create respect and pride on the part of the public for its use. Such a plant is more economical to operate.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR USE AND CARE

Responsibility for use of school plant. The best school plant on a beautiful, well-selected site with a modern school building and well-equipped classrooms and shops efficiently operated and properly maintained will not be an effective educational tool unless it is carefully utilized, properly protected, and made to function as a child's home during school hours, a child's learning laboratory, and as a center for culture, recreation, and education of the entire community. The responsibility for developing such a conception of the school plant rests primarily with principals and teachers. This responsibility can be best met by the type of educational program that principals and teachers direct in the plant. If children are led to think of the school building in terms with which good children view their own homes, they will care for and protect it as they do their homes. Children do not practice vandalism at home; similarly they should refrain from such acts at school. Children experiment at home; similarly they should use the school as a laboratory for learning by doing.

If principals and teachers meet their responsibility for using a school plant wisely, they can make it contribute in many ways to the life of a community in addition to its use as a place in which children secure their formal schooling. In rural communities the school has frequently served as the community center; in other communities it has provided the only library facilities available, but too frequently the typical school has been isolated and insulated from everyday community living. A school plant should be so used that the full life of the community can center in it. It can be used as a social center; as a polling place during elections, and as a meeting place for civic societies, welfare associations, as well as the parent-teacher association. It can serve as a recreation center where the children, youth, and adults of the neighborhood use the playground, the gymnasium, and the swimming pool during out-of-school hours, particularly in the evening hours.

Community education is needed today as never before because of the changing social, economic, and political world in which people live. Problems have come to every community that cannot be solved without further study. Schooling must today continue throughout life, and the neighborhood elementary school should be made the place for such community schooling. Problems of human relations, problems of race relationships, problems affecting labor and management problems of public service, and many problems of a similar nature can be solved best by the citizens of a community working together in some central location where all can come on an equal footing to learn by working together. The local school plant offers such a meeting place. School people and citizens in general must share the responsibility for making the school plant a real community school.

Responsibility for plant facilities. Principals, teachers, and pupils are responsible for the wise use of classrooms, shops, service rooms, and special activity rooms of a school plant. All the facilities of a school building should be fully utilized. Education can be furthered by using all the available space in a building. Classes and activities should be so programmed that every different type of room is used efficiently. Too often studies have revealed that certain rooms, usually classrooms, are used to almost 100 per cent of capacity whereas other facilities are used less than one half the time. There should not be an appreciable degree of waste of space in a building.

Principals and teachers are also responsible for the proper use of illuminating facilities. Seats, tables, and other movable educational equipment should be so placed that the proper amount of illumination is available to the children while they are at work. Often seats can be arranged in a quadrant instead of in parallel rows so that the glare and reflection of light to which pupils may be subjected will be appreciably reduced.

Although the proper use of heating and ventilating facilities is primarily the responsibility of the operating staff, principals and teachers must be sensitive to the problems of heating

and ventilating. They must see that temperatures are maintained at proper levels and that the air of a shop or classroom does not become stale. Teachers and pupils should also be conscious of the relative humidity of a school room. Children can do better work if the air does not become too dry. Whenever temperatures, humidity, and the condition of the air are not correct, principals should call it to the attention of the operating staff so that the atmospheric conditions for good school work can be restored.

Principals and teachers working with the pupils of a school must also see that toilets, drinking fountains, and lavatories are properly used. This calls for careful programming so that children of different ages can use such facilities at different times. Pupil traffic to and from places where these facilities are available in a building must be carefully supervised. Toilets need special attention with respect to cleanliness, ventilation, and appropriate lighting. The use of drinking fountains should be frequently supervised, especially during intermissions and in times of extremely warm weather.

Responsibility for protection and care of school plant. The employed personnel are responsible for the exercise of proper protective functions over the building and grounds of a school plant. They must direct pupil activities in such a way as to instill in pupils the desire to protect school property. All who use a plant must guard against fires and take special care to see that waste material is not allowed to accumulate where fires might start.

Principals and teachers are responsible for protecting a school plant from damage caused through breakage and defacement of the property by the pupils. Window breakage and other acts of vandalism may prove extremely costly in school systems of large cities. Through the efforts and co-operation of principals, teachers, and pupils, such waste can be materially reduced.

When the co-operation of the pupils in a community is enlisted in beautifying, landscaping, and keeping the school

grounds in good shape, immediate results in property care are usually noticeable. Breakage of window glass and other defacement of property show immediate decline. In addition to interesting the pupils in the care and preservation of school property, it is often necessary to educate the adult population of the community to an intelligent attitude toward the care of its school building and grounds. This can be done largely through the pupils themselves. By appealing to the civic pride of pupils and their parents, results can usually be obtained. School civic clubs, school and community betterment organizations, parent-teacher associations, and local community service clubs are other means of gaining the support of a community in the care of school property and in a well-kept school plant. However, this problem is not likely to be solved unless the principal and teachers take the initiative in protecting and caring for a school plant.

When any unsightly defacements are found on walls or fences, they should be removed immediately after discovery. Because operating employees, janitors particularly, may detect defacements as readily as teachers, it is their responsibility to make frequent inspections of the school premises. Obscene writing and picture drawing in the lavatories should be detected and removed promptly. If marking on the school fences or building is discovered at the beginning of the day, it should be removed before the opening of the school or as soon thereafter as possible. School principals should always seek to discover to what extent defacement of walls or fences may be traced to pupils and encourage the pupil body to co-operate in detecting and preventing this type of misdemeanor. Pride in a school plant can be enhanced by using good taste in decorating the interior and exterior, particularly by using color to beautify interior walls and by using well-selected pictures. The effect of the good appearance of a building and ground upon pupils, teachers, and the entire community is *important*. It makes for school pride and results in the formation of habits of thoughtfulness and care in the use of the school plant.

Hazardous conditions. Principals and teachers should report promptly any condition considered hazardous to children. Such conditions might be defective stairs or floors, unsanitary drinking fountains, unsanitary toilets, a fire alarm system that does not work properly, defects in heating system, improper storage of equipment, faulty ventilation, defects in building construction, or need for better artificial lighting.

Improper cleaning may also endanger the health and safety of pupils. Although keeping a building clean is the primary responsibility of janitors, teachers and pupils are also vitally concerned. Proper cleaning cannot be done unless pupils and teachers co-operate to the extent of making it possible by keeping school supplies and equipment properly stored. A room littered with educational materials cannot be effectively cleaned.

Relations between custodians and teaching personnel. It is essential that the educational personnel working in a school plant secure the co-operation and interest of the custodians of the plant. To enlist their full co-operation, the principal must seek to develop in janitors and custodians an attitude of pride in the proper care of the school. Not all of the co-operation should be expected from the custodians; the co-operation of both teachers and pupils in the care of the school must also be enlisted. Sometimes it is possible to develop the right attitude toward school care on the part of operating employees through pupil efforts, bringing custodians to realize that the pupils are willing to work with and not against them in the care of the school building and grounds.

Although it is not the function of the children to perform the janitorial work of the school, they should certainly refrain from throwing paper on classroom floors and corridors or on the lawn when it can just as easily be placed in the waste-baskets provided for that purpose. Likewise, it is important that teachers be conscious of the fact that they should train the children to assist the custodians by observing the rules for the care of building and grounds. Teachers are responsible for

keeping rooms orderly, and they should co-operate to the extent of not making unnecessary custodial work through any carelessness or neglect.

The school plant as a learning environment calls for proper relations between pupils, teachers, and administrators on the one hand and engineer, janitors, and custodians on the other. The educational employees should take the initiative in cultivating proper relations. Pupils should not be permitted in the janitor's quarters or in the boiler or engine room or allowed to annoy building employees. When difficulties arise, the principal should act as a mediator and, as tactfully as possible, point out to all concerned the necessity for maintaining co-operative relations.

Teachers can make the janitor's task harder by being unduly critical regarding his work. It is advisable to have all complaints about janitorial services made by teachers come through the principal's office rather than directly from teacher to janitor. Likewise, if the janitor has grievances, these, too, should be routed through the principal's office. In this way definite responsibility can be fixed, and better working relations established.

A good janitor and a good engineer are assets to any school plant. Accordingly, principals should cultivate in these assistants a feeling of responsibility for the work of the entire school. The efforts of pupils, teachers, engineer, firemen, and janitors alike are necessary to proper maintenance of a good educational plant. The principal is the one individual who can initiate and help establish those relationships that will insure good work by all.

Systematizing the use of a school plant. In addition to assuming responsibility for the proper utilization of the school plant and for its protection, appearance, and proper care, the principal must plan for the proper administration of the plant by the organization of schedules for its use by pupils and patrons. The administration of corridors and stairs can usually be taken care of by the development of a systematic plan of dismissal to

be followed regularly. This may call for the organization of a corps of pupil monitors and for teacher supervision. The toilets and basements must be carefully supervised, because they may become centers of congestion that, if not properly controlled, may lead to difficulties and loss of morale on the part of the pupils. Custodians should be encouraged to report promptly any unnecessary loitering, obscene writing, or unsatisfactory conditions observed in service rooms.

The building up of school pride and school spirit will do more to bring about self-control on the part of pupils than rigid disciplinary measures. Recesses can be so programmed that older and younger children will not use the toilets at the same time, and thus simplify many administrative problems.

The systematic use of playground space presents another important problem in administration that is frequently neglected when considering the total school plant as a learning environment. Playground space should be carefully surveyed and its capacity accurately estimated in order to ascertain how many children of different ages can be accommodated on the grounds at any given time. In case the entire enrollment cannot be accommodated satisfactorily at one time, the school can be divided into sections, preferably by age groupings, and then the different sections scheduled for different play periods. One method of securing additional play space that is sometimes used in congested areas is to block off a portion of a street for play purposes during school hours. Arrangements must of course be made with the proper city authorities for the use of a street. When a street is used for play space, provision must be made for placing of street barriers to vehicular traffic before the play periods and for removing them at the close of the periods. It may be necessary at times to secure police protection during play periods when streets are used. Use of streets for play space, however, is a very poor substitute for adequate playgrounds on the school site. A serious objection to the use of a street as play space is that it may encourage children in

the general use of the streets for play purposes, thus forming habits that must later be inhibited.

The organization of the school ground requires systematic planning. Experience has shown the value of various yard schedules and indicates that pupil monitors can be used to help control the use of the school yard. Monitors and teachers should keep especially close supervision over the use of any playground apparatus that may be a source of accidents.

Items requiring special supervision. In addition to what has been said about the operation and utilization of a school plant, there are some items that require special attention. Among such items are the clock system, pupils' and teachers' lunchrooms, teachers' rest room, cloakrooms, and clothes lockers, and any other special equipment of building or playground. Program clocks must be properly synchronized in order that room programs, schedules for special subjects, and the like may operate smoothly. Clocks that cannot be depended upon are sources of great waste in classroom work. Lunchrooms, when cafeterias are not provided, require special supervision with respect to cleaning, water supply, and cooking facilities as well as to organization for appropriate pupil use. The teachers' lunchroom, when separated from the lunchroom of pupils, often presents a special problem in the matter of service and financing.

Provisions for wardrobes and locker rooms require special attention, especially with respect to such matters as the proper number and height of hooks, temperatures of the rooms, and protection of wraps against theft. If a departmental organization is used in the upper grades of the school, scheduling of places for leaving wraps makes systematic supervision especially necessary. The use of public playgrounds or parks adjacent to and sometimes under the control of the school may require special scheduling and systematic supervision.

Whenever a school plant is fortunate enough to have shower rooms and a swimming pool, these facilities not only need special supervision and care, but their use by pupils must be

carefully guarded to protect the lives and health of children and to guard against accidents that might occur through improper use.

SUMMARY

The school plant should be so located, designed, operated, and maintained that it will contribute to the education, health, happiness, and aesthetic, cultural, and civic development of the children and adults of a community. All school plants should be planned to meet modern educational requirements, and the entire plant should be conceived as a learning environment. Buildings should be so designed that classrooms are planned with special reference to the age groups and subjects taught. The modern school building will provide laboratories, shops, auditorium, gymnasium, library, lunchroom, and multipurpose rooms to fit the specific needs of the community it is to serve. The school site should be wisely selected with reference to other physical features of a community, near the present or future center of the school population. It should be ample in size and provide sufficient playground, yard, and service space.

The service facilities of a school plant—heating, ventilating, lighting, sanitary equipment, and acoustical facilities—should all be designed to help create a stimulating environment in which learning can take place. Modern heating and ventilating systems, proper illumination, and acoustical properties, under regulated temperatures and even distribution of air, with sound and noises under control, and with sufficient lighting without harmful glare, all promote healthy bodies and alert minds and facilitate learning. Adequate controls of all service systems add to the comfort of pupils and teachers and reduce costs of operation.

A modern school plant is a valuable community center. It is the child's home during school hours, it is a learning laboratory for all in the community, and it can help make the community itself a force in the education of children and adults alike.

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Functional Equipment and Supplies

OTHER CHAPTERS HAVE POINTED OUT THAT the function of the modern elementary school is to work with children in such a way that they will be guided in individual learning and in group living. Chapter 4 indicated that the classroom is the most important functional unit in the individual school. This chapter attempts to show how all educational equipment and supplies are vitally related to the efficiency with which a classroom in an elementary school can perform its primary function. To appreciate the truth of the statement, one has only to contrast the modern classroom with that of earlier times. The classroom of earlier times was crudely equipped; crude benches, a book for reading, a book for arithmetic, perhaps one in grammar, a slate, and a blackboard were the meager materials of instruction used by the pupils and teacher. The modern classroom is characterized by good seating and lighting, many excellent and varied textbooks, reference works, charts, maps, and numerous aids to instruction, including a great variety of collateral and supplementary reading materials, audio-visual aids, radio, television, and all that a modern community has to offer in educational resources to help children develop into good citizens.

An educational responsibility. The responsibility for securing and using proper educational equipment and supplies is an important one. School administrators, teachers, pupils, and parents must share that responsibility; it cannot be delegated to outside interests. Those who actually work in a classroom at any given time are seldom responsible for the original equipment of a school, as they usually find the building equipped when they take charge; and except in the case of a new building, teachers and principal are rarely able to select the original equipment of a school. They may, however, through gradual replacements and by adding additional materials, greatly alter the equipment and thus in the course of time completely change it.

The chief responsibility for the selection of equipment in most large school systems rests with the educational authorities in the central office. In many cases the specifications for the equipment to be used are decided upon by the superintendent and his educational assistants. They in turn make up the specifications upon the advice of the principals and teachers who must use the equipment and materials. The purchase and installation of equipment is often done by the business manager or purchasing agent of the board of education. Occasionally is it done by business executives without the approval of educational authorities; more often by the board of education or its business manager upon the approval of the superintendent of schools. The important fact is that all educational equipment and supplies should be secured because of their educational value. Everything purchased should make a definite contribution to a balanced program of learning for the individual child within a group and for the class of children as a group.

The responsibility of the principal and teachers of an individual school in the selection and purchase of equipment depends to a considerable degree on the type of equipment that is considered. Equipment is usually distinguished from supplies because of the element of endurance; supplies are consumed in use, whereas equipment lasts for a period of years. Equip-

ment may be classified under two headings: permanent and movable.

Permanent or fixed equipment refers to articles such as electric fixtures; fire protection equipment; sanitary, heating, and ventilating fixtures; blackboards; fixed desks; and the like. Movable equipment refers to movable desks; chairs; office furniture and equipment; educational furniture; and educational equipment such as lanterns, radios, maps, globes, victrolas, duplicating machines, and books of all kinds.

In many systems the permanent or fixed equipment is installed in the schools according to the directions of the central office and is changed thereafter only through the requisition of the principals when such requests are approved by the proper authorities. The reason for such procedures is that buildings may be marred by readjustments in permanent equipment. For example, permanent hangers for maps are placed in the proper positions in order to prevent the driving of nails that may mar woodwork or otherwise damage the walls of a school room. Thus, restrictions regarding the care, repair, and handling of fixed equipment are justified. Members of instructional staffs should not misinterpret or resent reasonable rules for governing the placement and care of permanent items of equipment.

On the other hand, restrictions are rarely placed upon the manipulation of movable equipment according to the wishes of teachers or principals. There is no reason why the movable equipment of a classroom should not be arranged at the will of the classroom teachers, provided such arrangements do not conflict with the efficiency of instruction or the standards of classroom hygiene. Adjustable equipment may also be changed at the direction of those using it or moved on a requisition or order. Whenever changes in equipment are made, such changes should be governed by the educational needs of the children served and not on mere whim or fancy.

Information on trends in equipment. As previously indicated,

there have been great changes in the amount, kind, and character of the equipment used by schools through the years. As educational objectives change and as the function of the school enlarges, equipment changes. Principals and teachers of elementary schools must therefore keep themselves adequately informed regarding changes and improvements in school equipment. For example, children's desks and seats are far more comfortable today than they were in the past; in addition, there is a definite tendency to use movable rather than fixed seats and desks and to use those that are adjustable to the needs of the individual child. If principals and teachers have kept themselves properly informed regarding developments, they should experience no great difficulty in securing appropriate seating for their schools.

School lighting fixtures are examples of other permanent equipment in which improvements have been made from time to time. School people should be cognizant of these improvements so that when changes in lighting equipment are made in a given school, they may be able to recommend the types that best meet the needs of their particular situation.

Similarly there have been and are continually being made many improvements in movable as well as in permanent equipment. Text materials, additional visual and auditory aids, and new types of maps, charts, and globes are continually changing and improving. Whenever new equipment of this type is added, it should be in conformity with the best modern trends known to education.

A knowledge of modern developments in all types of school equipment will enable principals and teachers to increase the general efficiency of their school by making budgetary requests for needed equipment of the type that will improve the instructional program. Only as the professional people in education are familiar with the most progressive trends in school equipment will they be able to hold a position of leadership with respect to the physical improvement of the school.

SECURING MATERIALS

Sources of equipment. In general most of the equipment in a school is provided by the board of education. This is true of permanent items and of most movable forms of equipment as well. However, interested groups such as parent-teacher associations or service clubs and others often supplement the equipment regularly furnished by boards of education. Whenever such gifts are made, they should be made for their educational value and should be installed according to the regulations of the school system in which the school operates. Unless the additional equipment meets the standards of the equipment provided by the board of education, it will add little to the general value of the physical plant. Furthermore, such gifts of equipment must meet fire, safety, and other general regulations that may apply to their use before they can be accepted.

Free materials. In addition to equipment regularly supplied by school authorities and that received by gifts to the school, principals and teachers can receive a wealth of free materials. Many educational publications, such as the journals of state education associations and the Journal of the National Education Association in particular, contain lists of free and inexpensive materials available to the schools. The Department of Documents of the Federal Government will send listings of booklets published by the Federal Government for free distribution. Many have educational value and can supplement the materials available in any school by serving as educational aids. State governments also provide such free materials. There are annotated indices, revised annually, of free materials in every field of school work. These list materials available in the field of school administration, health education, applied and fine arts, language arts, the sciences, the social studies, audiovisual aids, and various special fields. They also provide source indices of these free materials.

Free materials come from many sources and are produced for various purposes. Some are educational materials prepared

for use in schools. These include books, periodicals, and many audiovisual aids to instruction, usually produced with a "service for profit" motivation. Many professional and nonprofit organizations, as well as Community Funds, provide publications and materials as a result of their research work. There are also propaganda materials designed to win readers to a cause. In such materials bias may be veiled and sponsorship concealed because they are produced by pressure groups whose causes may be misrepresented.

The use of free materials is justified, but principals and teachers must use them judiciously. They may be used whenever they meet the requirements of the school's general philosophy of education, whenever they do not distort the facts, and only when they will supplement the school's program. They cannot be used unless there is a sound educational basis for their use, and they should not be used for purposes of propaganda or mere advertising. Propaganda and advertising have no place in the elementary school's program.

Keeping instructional materials current. A problem closely allied to using free materials in schools is that of using current materials of instruction. Only current materials make possible the development of a flexible curriculum needed by children and youth in a rapidly changing world. Current information of all kinds gives life to a school curriculum and is not restricted merely to the social studies. The study of science, mathematics, literature, art, drama, music, human relations, and vocational subjects can all be enriched by using current materials. They are important because they help define new problems and motivate the subject matter that children are studying. They help keep children abreast of the growing knowledge of man. The notion that children in an elementary school should be isolated in a cloistered classroom is not only outdated but is impossible because children learn everywhere. If the school does not provide them with current facts, they will pick them up at home, on the street, or in some other place and too often from a biased point of view.

Current materials of instruction may be found in many forms such as pictures, films, radio broadcasts, television programs, and a huge bulk of printed materials. The great amount of such materials makes it necessary for the school to make some sort of selection of materials of current interest that can be used profitably in the instruction of children. Merely to permit children to wander through a great mass of current materials in order to learn about the life around them is not sufficient. There must be some reasonable basis for the selection of material to be used and that basis can be found in the nature of the learning process. If the material is relevant to the topics under discussion, if it makes a contribution to the ideas under consideration, if it helps to explain a problem, and if it is in harmony with the purpose of the lesson or course of study and free from bias, then the material may be used. Sometimes pressure groups want certain kinds of current materials used; then the school faces the problem of excluding unwanted material. Materials should be rejected when they have no bearing on present or projected classroom work. No child's mind can be properly nourished either by withholding all current materials or by limiting them to one side of a controversial subject. In the selection of current materials of instruction, consideration must be given (1) to the maturity level of the children; (2) to the necessity of securing a reasonably representative sampling of different points of view; (3) to the adaptability and usefulness of the materials in a school situation; (4) to the reliability of the material, its authorship, and its sponsorship; and (5) to whether or not the material has mere emotional appeal.

Schools must make provision for acquiring current materials. Although they may be deluged with free booklets and bulletins they may have to purchase other materials to counterbalance a partisan point of view. A local school should outline a policy for selecting and ordering current materials, for handling the materials in the library or classrooms, for circulating them in the school, and for keeping the files up to date. The school librarian has a definite and particular responsibility in the

matter, and the library can often be used as the center for handling this type of supplementary instructional material.

The selection of textbooks. One of the greatest responsibilities of any school is that of selecting textbooks, library books, supplementary texts, workbooks, and such materials as globes, charts, and maps. Any school's program of instruction will be influenced by the way it is equipped with texts and text materials. Principals and teachers are in the main responsible for text and text materials. Although the final authority for the selection and purchase of books rests with the superintendent and board of education, the principals and teachers exercise both direct and indirect influence on the recommendations to be made. In the majority of cities the superintendent generally uses textbook committees in the selection of books. The personnel of such committees usually consists of principals, teachers, and supervisors. In the great majority of cases, the recommendations of textbook committees are followed, so it is obvious that the principal and teachers exercise an important influence in the choice of the books used in a school. Because many school systems provide free textbooks and free supplementary instructional materials, the responsibility of those working in a school in such a system is even greater.

Many cities maintain an open list of books from which the principal of a school may order and requisition books within the limits of the list. Principals and teachers usually determine the number, grade level, and subject matter distribution of the books to be used in the schools. In the larger cities the rules of the board of education usually prescribe the requisitioning of books and other instructional materials as a duty of the principal. However, principals are guided by teachers or committees of teachers within a school in making their requisitions. Often the number of books that may be requisitioned annually by any school is determined on a per pupil basis set by the board of education. Whenever an open list is available, the principal should exercise care in the selection of books to insure

a proper balance of subject fields, grade levels, and difficulty of content with the needs of the school.

The wide use of supplementary materials in recent years has resulted in the division of books and other instructional materials into a number of classifications, such as basic texts, supplementary texts, library books, work materials, maps, charts, and globes. Children are now encouraged to get their information from more than one source; hence supplementary texts are as necessary as the basic texts. The extensive use of maps, charts, globes, and similar equipment makes a separate classification for this type of material advisable. Such questions as the facility with which a chart or map may be used, the way in which it may duplicate or supplement the material in the basic and supplementary textbooks, as well as the type of information conveyed must be considered by the principal and teachers of a school. Work materials, such as primary grade seat materials for given textbooks, drill books for language and arithmetic books, and individual pupil work materials, have all grown in use to such an extent that they should be separately classified in order to get an effective selection to supplement and complement the material of the texts in use in a school.

In selecting texts and similar equipment for a school, principals and teachers should be guided by data obtained from answers to certain fundamental questions. Is the book or other material suited to the grade level in which it is to be used? Does the material in the book fit into the course of study? Is its vocabulary suitable for the age of the children who will be asked to read it? Is the size of the type in which it is printed appropriate to the physical development of the child's eye? Is it well illustrated, and are the illustrations understandable by children of the given grade level? Is the material interesting, and does it have meaning to the children who will use the book? Do the materials in one text or supplementary instructional aid supplement and complement materials in others? Are all the different kinds of educational equipment correlated and co-ordinated with the school's educational program? Do

the texts and materials present different points of view in dealing with controversial issues? Does the whole program of the school's texts and other materials hang together and help the child in becoming integrated in modern society? Are the materials presented in accord with good educational and psychological principles? Do the texts and materials follow the principles of good mental hygiene? Are the texts and materials available in sufficient quantities for use in a school? Are the costs within the budgetary allowances of the school? Are the materials produced by reliable firms, and do they have competent authorships?

These are but a few of the questions that workers in a modern elementary school must consider when selecting texts and text materials. In addition, provision must be made for securing the critical reactions of pupils and the evaluations of the teachers who must use the materials. Furthermore, the materials should be suitable for the cultural level of the group of pupils in the school. Certain books are more usable in one school or in one locality than in another.

Every school should develop plans for trying out new books and materials, and securing an evaluation of their usefulness and suitability within reasonable limits of time. Provision should be made for interviews between principal and teachers and the representatives of publishing companies. The economical use of school time makes it inadvisable to leave the timing of such conferences to mere chance. Provision should also be made for developing plans for the effective utilization of the sample books and materials received from publishers. Unreasonable requests from individual teachers in a school for samples, desk copies, and trial copies should be avoided by having all such requests cleared through the school office. A bookcase may be set aside in the school office for the display of new books and materials received as samples or on requisition. Teachers and even pupils should be informed regarding the receipt of such materials, and they in turn should report

their reactions to the principal or to a committee of teachers if they have examined the new books.

Some cities render professional service to principals and teachers by establishing a library or a department at the central office or in a certain school or even in the public library, in which are exhibited samples of all textbooks and work materials on the official lists, together with prices and requisition numbers. This makes it possible for all concerned in a school system to examine the books and materials before purchases are made.

SCHOOL SUPPLIES

The problem of school supplies. Educational materials that are consumed during a school year are usually considered school supplies. Chalk, erasers, pencils, paper, towels, soap, art and craft paper, ink, pens, and dozens of similar items are examples of school supplies. In most elementary schools, some supplies are furnished by the board of education. In a few, pupils are required to furnish all of their own supplies; but in others, everything used by the pupil is furnished. The problem of securing, handling, and using school supplies will increase with the amount and variety of the supplies furnished to a school. In those schools in which only general operating supplies such as soap, towels, toilet paper, chalk, and erasers are furnished, the administration of the supplies may be left in the hands of the janitorial force. The principal or teachers may or may not have the responsibility for ordering when the amount of supplies furnished is limited to operating supplies. However, in those schools in which textbooks, paper, pencils, pens, and other classroom supplies are furnished through public funds, the problems of administering supplies must be solved by the principal and teachers. Whenever this is the case, the educational staff is usually vested with the responsibility for making monthly, semiannual, or annual requisitions for supplies for the school.

Good school administration requires that school supplies be

classified according to their educational function in order that principals, teachers, and business employees may readily refer to such materials without confusion. Classroom supplies are classified as general supplies, shop supplies, music supplies, kindergarten supplies, library supplies, construction and art supplies, and the like.

Methods of selecting supplies. In order to do good school work, it is necessary that there should be some uniformity in the kind and amount of the school supplies available to each pupil. This is true no matter whether the supplies are furnished by the school or purchased by the pupils. It is desirable, therefore, that principals and teachers participate in the selection of the kind and types of supplies to be used by the pupils. When pupils furnish their own, they should be asked to make their purchases in conformity with the types and kinds of supplies recommended by the school. When supplies are furnished by a school or a school system, they should be purchased by the board of education or its business agent on the basis of recommendations made by committees of principals and teachers both as to quantity and quality of the articles to be used. Too often the advice of principals and teachers is not used in the purchase of supplies. In the interest of good results in school work, the professional people most concerned should not hesitate to make their views known whenever the quality and quantity of the school supplies are inferior.

Requisitioning supplies. Because supplies are secured in most school systems by requisition, it is essential that principals and teachers familiarize themselves with the practices of requisitioning in use in the school system. As a rule each classification of supplies, such as books, paper, shop supplies, and various kinds of classroom supplies, has a quota apportioned on the basis of the number of pupils. Some supplies are usually kept in stock in a warehouse of the board of education, whereas others must be secured by the board through purchase from commercial firms upon receipt of the requisition from the school. Sometimes supplies are delivered directly to the school

buildings; at other times, to some central stockroom. Eventually all supplies must be distributed in the school building to the classrooms where they will be used.

Each type of supplies frequently has its own form upon which requisition must be made. The requisition is usually

BOARD OF EDUCATION Requisition for Supplies	
School _____	19____
Department _____	(Signed) _____
Quantity	Description

Fig. 15. Requisition for Supplies from Stock.

REQUEST FOR PURCHASE OF BOOKS, SUPPLIES, AND EQUIPMENT				
Request made by _____		For _____, 19____		
Purchased from _____		Address: _____		
Quantity	Description of Articles	Code	Price	Amount
This request must be written plainly by one in authority and forwarded to the Business Office for action. Careful attention to description of articles, source of supply, and cost estimates will facilitate the handling of this request.				
Disposal: _____				

Fig. 16. Requisition for Purchase of Supplies.

made out in triplicate and is sent to a specified office or department, depending upon the type of supplies desired. Figure 15 is an illustration of a form used for the requisitioning of supplies in a small city. This form is sent by the individual school to the central office where the business manager and his staff take care of the matter. When supplies must be purchased because they are not kept in stock, other forms of requisition are used. Figure 16 is an illustration. Such supplies are usually delivered by the commercial firm directly to the individual school.

Various officials care for the processing of requisitions for different types of supplies. Business managers, purchasing agents, auditors, stock clerks, and others are usually concerned. They should work under the direction of the superintendent of schools or one of his assistants. Principals and teachers of individual schools usually initiate requisitions and must also acknowledge receipt of supplies upon delivery. There is considerable variation in methods used in different school systems, in the periods of time when requisitions may be sent in, and in the periods the requisitions of supplies are intended to cover. These variations in the phases of supply administration show a tendency toward lack of strict standardization, each school system probably tending to adopt a system best suited to its own needs. The school staff must be cognizant of the particular system in use and should co-operate in every way with the proper officials in order to receive prompt and efficient service. Requisitions must be filled out accurately and on the specified forms. The number of articles desired must be accurately designated. Delays can be avoided by forwarding the forms promptly to the proper offices and departments. Duplicate or triplicate forms of requisitions should be made and retained in the school office in order that reference may be made to them if questions arise later concerning any detail of the transaction. Care on the part of principals and teachers in the individual school will bring compensating returns in the form of efficient service from the supply department.

The supply department frequently has a system of charging

supplies on the basis of unit costs. Accounts may be kept with each school as a unit. This system is frequently used in large city systems. It is less complicated for the business department than the system whereby accounts are kept with the classroom as a unit. The purpose of any accounting system is threefold; namely, economy of use, efficient budgeting, and efficient administration. Economy of use is important. The aim should be to use sufficient materials without being wasteful. Budgeting, to be effective, must provide the supplies essential to efficient school operation in necessary amounts. Good administration provides equitable distribution of supplies where needed without overdue drain on time and energies of the principal and his staff.

The principal of an elementary school should provide adequate organization for teacher participation in requisitioning supplies. In the administration of supplies, the principal must not be unmindful of the needs of special departments in his school. Unless he is alert to the needs of his special classes, he will tend to leave the administration of these supplies more and more to the teachers of special subjects. He should note especially the needs in equipment and supplies of special divisions, the kindergartens, the manual training rooms, domestic science rooms, and gymnasium. *A principal should notify each teacher before preparing periodic requisitions or making the annual budget of supplies. Because it is not always possible to furnish each teacher with the printed classified lists, and because it is advisable that certain numbers and prices be filled in by the clerk, the principal may facilitate requisition-making by furnishing teachers with simplified forms for reporting their needs in books or supplies. These forms may be sorted and consolidated by the clerk before the fixed time for preparing periodic requisitions.*

It is often provided that special orders or requests for supplies beyond the usual provisions may be sent by the school directly to the superintendent for his consideration. The superintendent may have funds available for emergency use in

various departments, as, for example, manual training or visual education. In such cases he calls for the head of the given department to take care of the principal's special request. In addition to the regular funds upon which the principal may requisition supplies, there are sometimes special funds or special provisions for extra quotas from which requisitions may be granted. For example, orders for standardized tests are often permitted; and in case a school has a special industrial course, the allowance for shop and home economic supplies is larger than in schools in which the regular amount of industrial work is carried.

Administration of supplies in a school. An individual elementary school is usually responsible for the administration of the supplies sent to the school. Principals and teachers are usually permitted to use their discretion in issuing supplies to individual classrooms, and only rarely are they required to account to the central office for all supplies received in an individual room. As a rule, the principal is required to account for textbooks and other more or less permanent equipment. An individual school is expected to condemn books, maps, and similar materials that are unsuitable for use, order replacement, and secure the school's quota of new books and materials as they are added to official lists.

In general, an individual school is not required to account for individual classroom supplies. A school is allotted a quota; and when that is used, it will be necessary for principal and teacher to show cause for a need for additional supplies. If unit costs are considered, the school will usually receive a report for the school from the auditing or accounting officials.

A school is expected to observe carefully the prescribed procedures in ordering and receiving supplies. The prescribed procedures usually include using a given form, indicating the correct appropriation or fund, sending the requisition to the proper department, timing the requisition to conform with regular delivery dates, signing for supplies on delivery, retaining

copies of the requisitions and invoices for filing, and protecting the supplies on hand from loss or destruction.

The storage of supplies and books involves adequate organization of available space; systematic routine for sorting, storing, and distribution; and provision for effective safeguards against fire and theft. The main storeroom for classroom supplies in a modern elementary school building should, if possible, be a part of the office suite. There should be special provision for the storing of lumber in the wood shop and fire-proof receptacles should be furnished and utilized for the storage of combustible supplies. The kindergarten should have convenient and roomy accommodations for the special supplies and equipment of that room. The same is true in the case of special rooms, domestic science rooms, and gymnasiums. Systematic, economic storage provisions will make for the efficient functioning of instruction in special-subject classrooms. In most schools, storage space is furnished for keeping on hand an adequate amount of the various kinds of supplies. The amount of supplies that may be ordered, to be kept on hand for the use of a school, varies with different school systems. In some systems a school is limited by a quota of supplies for the school year, whereas in others as much may be ordered as will be honored by officials in charge.

Distribution of supplies to classrooms. Every elementary school should set up some organization in the school for the distribution of supplies. This is usually the responsibility of the principal, but it should be so organized that it will not draw heavily upon his own time. If the school has a clerk, and most large schools do, it is advisable to place the clerk in charge of supplies. If there is no clerk, one of the teachers can be given the responsibility and can be provided with pupil assistants and a schedule for supplying orders. Effective administration requires that the organization for the distribution of supplies be operated according to schedule. The orders from teachers should be received only at fixed times and should be filled at fixed times. Teachers must be trained to be systematic

and efficient in their administration of supplies. It is a good plan to have for the use of teachers in requisitioning classroom supplies, a printed form on which is a printed list of available supplies. If a cardboard form is used, after each article may be left a space wherein the teacher can indicate the amount of the article desired. Enough space should be provided on the form to care for each month of the school year. If this card is sent to the office, for example, on the first Monday of each school month, the clerk can make up the amount of supplies needed to provide each room. On the following day, she can send the amount of supplies desired, together with the card form, to the teacher. The card form is then available for the next month, and becomes a permanent record of supplies sent to the room during the year. Systematized procedure of the type described saves time and effort for teacher and clerk and insures regular delivery of essential supplies to the classrooms.

The distribution of supplies to rooms will be facilitated if the school has a systematic plan for receiving and storing supplies. If pupil helpers are employed in any phase of supply administration, their work must be carefully supervised. The school that leaves the storing of books and supplies to pupils will usually be seriously handicapped by the haphazard location of materials in the storeroom. For the purposes of inventory and delivery to rooms, all articles should be placed on shelves that are labeled for convenient and economical use.

In no case should the principal or teacher allow his own time to be monopolized by the administration of supplies. The best precaution against this undoubtedly lies in refraining from handling the supplies. Once a principal permits teachers to come to him with individual requests for supplies, he has created for himself and teachers a habit that will require some time and effort to break. In details of ordering, receiving, and storing supplies, the principal or teacher in charge checks, makes decisions, and supervises, but keeps himself emancipated from trifling details. Studies emphasize the importance of ef-

fective delegation of duties and the organization of routine for the administration of supplies in an elementary school.

USE AND CARE

Effective use of books and supplies. When books and supplies have been ordered, received, checked, stored, and distributed, the school is still responsible for their effective and economical use. Books and supplies must be effectively used in the educational process if they are to be vitally related to the efficiency with which a classroom can guide children and youth in learning and living. Even though principals and teachers may not be held financially responsible for the books and supplies or perhaps even asked to account for the amounts ordered, they have a moral responsibility in seeing that their value is respected by pupils and that the books and supplies are efficiently used. Principals have the responsibility of guiding teachers and other workers in a school in setting up procedures so that pupils will effectively use the materials at hand. Although no one, for example, could reasonably expect a principal or school clerk to account momentarily for the exact location of all books or movable equipment or supplies in a school, he should be expected to maintain a simple accounting system in the school office that should enable him to locate the various items that have been charged to an individual classroom. In schools organized according to some departmental plan, the handling of books and other equipment is often a serious problem. Arrangements can be made for saving the handling and carrying of books by pupils, thus aiding in eliminating excuses for frequently misplacing books and supplies needed for classroom work. Some arrangement should be agreed upon and adopted instead of pursuing a policy of *laissez faire*. Principals and teachers render service to pupils and parents when children learn such fundamental lessons as the proper care and use of material possessions.

In case of perishable supplies for classroom use, the school is not expected to place hampering limits upon teachers with .

respect to amounts used. Some pupils will use more supplies than others; some room groups will require a larger amount of supplies than other groups. The principal will not find it advisable to check the quantities of supplies used in one room against the amounts used in other rooms. If, however, he gives *reasonable attention to the records of supplies ordered and distributed*, and in his supervision of instruction systematically samples the work of the various rooms, he will inform himself regarding any *unusual tendencies in either undue limiting of supplies by teachers or unreasonable waste in the use of supplies*. The school can best eliminate wasteful use of supplies through a gradual campaign of education among the pupils in the economical use of community funds. The sources of payment for school supplies and a proper attitude of respect for property should be the factors emphasized.

Responsibility for care of equipment. Closely related to the effective use of school supplies is the problem of providing for the use and care of both permanent and movable school equipment used by the teachers and pupils. Many school systems place the school principal in charge of the building, grounds, and equipment as well as the instructional program. If this is the case, the principal, as the responsible head of the school, should organize the staff of the school so that adequate care of equipment is exercised. If the pupils deface or mar equipment through perversity or careless use, the principal must accept the responsibility for laxity of organization and administration. It is not so much a financial as a moral responsibility that the principal and teachers assume for damages to equipment. Should they punish a pupil for damage to equipment, the parent of the pupil might take the case to court, charging unreasonable punishment, and might win the case. It is assumed that equipment is in the school for the use of children and, because children are not so responsible as adults, that the equipment may be damaged to an appreciable extent through use. There is also some doubt as to whether the parent should

be punished through payment of damages for an irresponsible act of the child.

The right to collect for damaged equipment, however, should always be based upon a moral rather than a legal issue. A broken window may be used as an illustration of this principle. If, on investigation, the breaking of the window by a pupil is regarded as an accident, no attempt should be made under ordinary circumstances to collect for its replacement. If, on the other hand, the pupils had been warned not to play ball near the window, and if the rule had been disregarded and the window broken as a result, the moral right to collect should be pressed to a reasonable limit. The parent should be convinced, if possible, that the child must respect the rules of the school. The pupils should be impressed with the fact that property rights are to be respected at all times. The principal and teachers should be well versed in the board rules, city ordinances, and school law covering the cases, in order to make their discussions with pupils or parents convincing and to avoid embarrassment through not having their policies upheld.

Principal and teachers should continually bear in mind that their educational effectiveness is judged to a marked extent by visitors and superior officers by the condition of the equipment of the school. It is, therefore, important that they develop a system that will enable them to provide adequate protection for school equipment.

Condition and use of equipment. A school, usually through its principal, is often required to make an annual report to the central office concerning the equipment it possesses and uses. The purpose of such a report is to inform the central office regarding the status and use of the equipment of a school in order that the needs of the system as a whole may be anticipated and provisions made for meeting those needs. In some school systems a special inventory book or record card for continual use is provided in which account is kept of all equipment on hand, all received, and all disposed of. Such reports make it possible for the business manager or other proper officials to

secure a report on the amount and location of the equipment in a given school by consulting the records. Figure 17 is an example of an equipment and service record in a city of medium size. Reports and records of this type are valuable to principals and teachers by keeping them informed of the equipment needs of a school. The records likewise may aid in preventing loss from unnecessary misplacements and thefts, in making insurance provisions accurate, and in securing replacements.

EQUIPMENT INVENTORY AND SERVICE RECORD					
Kind of equipment _____	Name of manufacturer _____		Style _____		
Serial number _____	Purchased from _____	Date _____			
Location _____		Purchased by: _____		Purchase price _____	
		Board - School - P.T.A.			
SERVICE RECORD					
Date	Order No.	Amount	Date	Order No.	Amount
Take-in date: _____			Trade allowance on new machine: _____		

Fig. 17. Inventory and Service Record Card.

In many school systems old and antiquated equipment may be condemned and ordered withdrawn from use in a school. Such measures are usually taken at the close of a school year or in the preparation of an annual budget of necessary equipment for a school. By studying a school's needs during the school year, the principal can exercise a great influence on the equipment of the school merely through making well-supported requests for new equipment in the annual budget. Furthermore, where special educational needs are pressed, the

principal may be able to secure changes in equipment already at hand.

It is also the responsibility of the principal of a school to see that standard equipment is kept in the proper state of repair. This requires a systematic method of checking the condition of all equipment and of requisitioning needed repairs. A checklist for items needing repair from time to time is a great aid to the faculty of a school in keeping equipment in good usable condition.

It is not sufficient, however, for a school merely to requisition equipment and materials from time to time and keep them in a good state of repair. To be effective in the educational process, the equipment and materials must be properly used. For example, the janitors may not use the vacuum equipment because they prefer older methods of cleaning. It thus becomes the duty of the principal or some other school official to train the janitors in the use of such modern forms of cleaning equipment. Score cards that set forth standards of proper building care as a means of acquainting the proper authorities with school conditions can be used to help custodians in employing modern methods. Teachers may not adjust the shades in the classrooms properly or may not be inclined to request the adjustment of adjustable desks. Visual materials, sand tables, relief maps, and other equipment may be permitted to lie idle, though representing a considerable outlay of money and possessing very definite educational value. In such cases, the principal must ascertain through his supervision how effectively the equipment is used. To insure the effective use of school equipment, however, the principal must see that it is supplied to the teacher in adequate amount. The teachers should not be expected to utilize effectively equipment that is seriously limited in proportion to their needs.

Facilitating the purchase of textbooks and supplies by pupils. In school systems that do not furnish pupils with textbooks and supplies, the school is confronted with two important problems; namely, the accommodation of the pupils and the

maintenance of standards of quality. Merchants who handle supplies may be interested only in the profits and, unless prevented from doing so by school standards, may sell inferior materials at high prices. In such cases, the school can take its problem to a superior executive officer for a ruling with regard to the furnishing of school supplies; or, with the consent of the superior officer, it can specify to local merchants the quality of supplies that the school will accept. With the consent of the board of education, a school store may be opened through which textbooks and school supplies are retailed to pupils at a small profit. Although the store imposes on the school responsibilities of management, it makes possible a saving to the parents and insures the maintenance of standards of quality throughout all the classrooms of the school.

If a school store is maintained, the principal and teachers must not allow it to monopolize their time. Unless the school has a clerk who can take charge of the store during intermission periods, it will be necessary to place the store in charge of a teacher. Only textbooks and regular school supplies should be handled, because it is not the function of a school to engage in *competitive merchandising*. If satisfactory service can be secured through community stores, it is better to rely upon them for the handling of books and supplies than to add a responsibility of administration that, with the best possible organization and management, is certain to make some demand on the time and energy of the principal and his assistants.

Securing supplies from extra-school agencies. There are types of supplies and equipment needed by an elementary school that are often not furnished by the board of education. The teachers can do without such supplies, although providing them would improve both efficiency and morale. Generally, the resourceful principal seeks for such materials beyond the regular school sources of supply. In the study of health, for example, investigations have disclosed that a great amount of free and inexpensive health materials suitable for school use are regularly issued by commercial, social, and public agencies.

Many kinds of such materials suitable for health instruction are furnished either free to schools or at negligible cost. It has been found that the material possesses value for pupils, teachers, and parents and deals specifically with health functions such as cleanliness, general health, and nutrition.

The principal before utilizing such materials for instruction must satisfy himself that their purpose is to promote public welfare and not commercial advertising or subtle propaganda.

SCHOOL FUNDS

Establishing a petty cash fund. School funds are seldom placed at the disposal of the principal of an elementary school for the direct purchase of supplies. However, a school may plan ways of securing a petty cash fund to enable it to make minor purchases of supplies needed but not furnished by the board of education. Some of the methods used by principals and teachers to raise funds for the school are (1) proceeds from benefit entertainments, (2) funds secured from the parent-teacher association, (3) proceeds from school picnics, (4) sale of waste paper and junk, (5) civic funds secured through a club organization, (6) profits from sales of candy by school organizations, and (7) proceeds from sales of industrial articles. The method employed will depend on the conditions prevalent in the school and community, such as the financial and social status of the school population, the progressive attitude of the parent-teacher association, and the school spirit manifested by pupils and teachers. Here, as in all other phases of school administration, the foresight and leadership displayed by the principal will be the determining factor in the establishment and maintenance of a petty cash fund for emergency uses of the school. The administration of such a fund, once it is established, requires careful attention by the principal. Unless great care is exercised, adverse criticism as to the disbursements may seriously affect the usefulness of the fund. Among the precautions and safeguards that may be observed are the following: (1) the principal should not act as treasurer; (2)

the funds should be drawn only by voucher to insure simple and accurate accounting; (3) the funds should not be kept in the school safe; and (4) reports should be rendered and audited periodically.

Administration of school funds. In addition to the petty cash fund, a school often must assume responsibility for the accounting and handling of other funds connected with school activities. Where a school has special rooms, many pupils may live outside of the district, thereby requiring the handling of carfare accounts. The same item is sometimes involved in large districts for pupils who are required to travel long distances. The penny lunch fund, the telephone fund, the lost book fund, contingent funds, funds from the sale of school supplies, and tuition accounts of nonresident pupils are also examples of accounting for which the principal and teachers are frequently held responsible.

The administration of such funds usually involves the maintaining of a school account with a local bank. With payments always made from the funds by check and with all moneys of the funds deposited promptly in the bank, a simple system of accounting should be devised, the details of which may be handled by the clerk, thus relieving the principal of much time and effort in administering the funds. The principal's main task in connection with such an accounting system will consist of auditing the accounts at the close of each day, week, or month.

Pupils' thrift and savings bank accounts are usually administered by the teacher who is the faculty sponsor of this activity. However, the principal will find it necessary to keep in touch with the methods of managing and accounting for funds in the thrift and savings organizations, especially in view of the large proportions that the operations of this activity frequently assume. A school, through its principal, must often make a financial report to the proper authorities of the board of education and turn over school money as specified in the rules and regulations of the school system.

Periodic inventories. In order to meet effectively the needs of pupils, teachers, and others in supplies and equipment, it is essential that the principal and teachers of an elementary school periodically take stock of supplies and equipment on hand. This is especially necessary for the preparation of the annual budget, which must include appropriations for specific items needed by the school that do not come within the standard lists of equipment and supplies. In many cities the principal is required by the rules and regulations to furnish the superintendent an annual inventory of books and supplies. Periodic inventories are required in other cities, and perpetual inventories are provided for in still others.

Because state laws make the preparation of an annual budget obligatory in many cities, principals and teachers must familiarize themselves with the budget practices of the school system in which they serve. They will find a record book for the accurate recording of their accounts of value both in budget preparation and administration. Knowledge of the status of the budget balances will save them the embarrassment of overdrawing their quotas or of taking the time of the auditor or business manager to inquire regarding information that they could easily secure.

Auditing and record-keeping will be simplified if the principal maintains a well-organized office. If forms, requisitions, and reports are furnished by the executive officers of the school system, these media should be utilized by the principal in administering his requisitions and accounts. In case such aid is not provided, the principal should devise and prepare in mimeographed or printed form such blanks and forms as are required for the economical administration of his school.

Rental system for textbooks. The public demand to continue the use of adopted textbooks beyond the period of their usefulness because of the capital investment of parents in such books, has led many school systems to try out the rental system for basic books. Books are purchased by the school and are rented to parents annually at about one fourth the cost price.

At the end of a four-year period the books have been paid for through the rental charge, and new books can then be purchased and the cycle started over again. The advantages of the plan are: (1) reduction of the cost of textbooks to parents, and (2) periodic retirement of books from use without conflict with parents over capital cost. The plan is in wide use in small and middle-sized school systems.

The adoption of the rental system of textbooks places a large responsibility on the school for the administration of the plan. Parents must be acquainted with their responsibility for the care of books by their children, and a record system perfected to make accurate accounting possible. Storage space must also be provided for the housing of the books during the summer vacation, and an administration policy adopted that is easily understood by teachers and pupils.

SUMMARY

Educational equipment, textbooks, supplementary materials, and supplies are a part of a school's educational program and should be considered an educational responsibility. Although principals and teachers may not always have original and usually do not have the sole responsibility for the selection of equipment, they can exert a great deal of influence in seeing that such materials are selected and secured because of their educational value in an elementary school. Changes in equipment, books, and supplies should be governed by the educational needs of the children who will use them.

Educational equipment and supplies should serve current needs and instructional materials should be kept current. Unless the books, reading materials, and other types of materials have bearing on the life lived by the children in the school, they cannot be considered educationally efficient. Current materials are needed to motivate subject matter, to keep children abreast of the changes in everyday life, and to fit pupils to live in the rapidly changing world. All educational materials should

be carefully selected in accordance with the best current educational practice.

An elementary school is responsible for the care of all equipment and supplies furnished to the school by the board of education. Although this responsibility is moral rather than financial, nevertheless principal and teachers must protect and use economically the equipment, books, and supplies provided for the school. This responsibility, furthermore, necessitates accounting and systematic management.

When the school is a part of a system of schools, the principal and teachers must adjust their organization for the selection, care, and use of equipment, materials, and supplies so that it will function as a unit of an articulated system. This means that the principal and teachers must familiarize themselves with the system required by the central office and its officials and conform to the regulations for ordering, receiving, and accounting for materials delivered to the school.

In the administration of equipment and supplies in a school, the principal must establish an organization that will enable him to fix responsibility for the care and economical use of materials. Equipment and supplies are provided for use; they should not be wasted; neither should they be spared. Thus, the principal must maintain a proper balance between protection and use. Moreover, in order to prevent time being monopolized by the management of supplies, he must organize his staff for efficient administration.

In most schools, it is desirable to furnish to teachers and pupils some supplies and equipment not provided through public funds. To meet such demands, a petty cash fund should be established, if possible, and maintained for miscellaneous purchases. Great care must be exercised in securing and administering such a fund, because, although it offers possibilities of great good to the school, it also possesses inherent dangers that must be avoided.

Because schools require equipment and supplies, this fact makes the efficient administration of equipment and supplies

essential. *The principal and teachers must accept the condition and develop an organization that will make possible efficient administration without interference with their professional duties of greater importance to the school.*

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Improvement of School Personnel

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN A DEMOCRATIC SOCIAL order cannot fulfill its functions efficiently unless adequate personnel is provided. No matter how well its functions are understood, in the last analysis the work of the school will be conditioned and limited by the personnel employed. Grounds, buildings, equipment, materials of instruction, texts, and supplies, are all essential but of less importance than the men and women—the administrators, teachers, custodial workers, and others—who serve in the school. Given the necessary, properly qualified, and conscientious workers, a school can function successfully, even though much may be desired in the way of material resources. This is another way of saying that the human element in a school is of more importance than material elements.

The old epigrammatic expression, "as the principal so the school," not only has come to be accepted as a truism in education but also has come to apply to the whole school personnel—teachers, supervisors, and maintenance employees as well as the principal. Unless every member of the team of workers in an elementary school does his part faithfully and well, the

work of the school will suffer. Personnel is of supreme importance.

SELECTION OF PERSONNEL

Types of personnel. Every school needs a responsible head, usually the principal, who serves as the administrator of the institution and directs the activities of all those who work therein. Every school must have classroom teachers. Some of these teach the regular school subjects; others, special subjects; and still others, shop and hand activities. Many schools also provide special teachers who do remedial work, physical education, or music and art instruction. Some schools also have the part-time services of psychologists, school social workers, counselors, attendance supervisors, nurses, doctors, and other specialists to assist the regular teachers.

Many school systems provide supervisors in the special subjects, and some systems provide supervisors for all school subjects. When such supervisors visit a particular school, they become a part of the personnel of the school and should be so considered.

Every school needs the services of janitors, maintenance personnel for building and grounds, and an engineer or custodian to maintain the physical plant and its equipment.

With the modern expanding school program, clerical and stenographic assistants are necessary in order to carry on the work of the school. Adequate personnel requirements imply that every school will have the proper number of well-qualified workers of the types mentioned above. Furthermore, the functions and duties of each type of worker should be definitely outlined with the responsibility of each understood by all the others. Without the delegation of authority and the definition of function, the personnel of a school cannot do effective teamwork.

Personal qualities desired in personnel. One of the most variable and yet most essential requirements of school personnel is that of personality or personal characteristics. The work

of all those engaged in education involves dealings with personalities.

Principals, teachers, and other educational workers have positions that demand vigor and vitality, and consequently they should be people who enjoy good health. As a rule they should be without serious deformities or physical handicaps. Defective eyesight, speech, or hearing will prove an impediment for which some compensation must be made. There is no factual evidence to show that either sex is more successful than the other, although it is generally desirable to have women work with the smaller children in the primary grades. The ideal person engaged in education should be a normal person, not extreme in either weight or height, and one physically able and sufficiently energetic and industrious to perform the work required by the position held.

Educational workers should have average or superior intelligence and should have the capacity to profit from the technical training required of candidates for positions in the schools. They should be people who are broadminded as well as open-minded and possess more than the normal amount of ability.

In temperament, educational workers should be phlegmatic rather than choleric. They should possess the personal charm and magnetism required of those who would lead willing followers rather than drive unwilling subjects. Principals and teachers should be enthusiastic and optimistic if they are to inspire others and particularly pupils with enthusiasm for the work of the school. The pessimist seldom, if ever, becomes a good school worker, as children and youth tend to shrink from a person who reflects only the dark side of things. Principals and teachers should by nature be sympathetic but not sentimental.

Because most of the work of educators brings them into contact with people, they must be well balanced, tactful, courteous, and fair in their dealings with others. Discretion must often be the better part of valor, and tact must often be the oil upon troubled waters that makes it possible to administer

justice without arousing personal resentment. Educators should be frank and clearcut and yet sensible and closemouthed. Pompous dignity, freakish clothing, peculiarities of speech or manner, or obsequiousness have no place in the makeup of those who work in an elementary school. Needless to say all who deal with children should keep themselves scrupulously clean and well groomed. Poise, sympathy, and a thorough knowledge of human nature, particularly child nature, will help all who deal with children. Unquestioned honesty, morality, and high ideals are demanded, as well as justice, sincerity, and moral courage.

Janitors, sweepers, engineers, and maintenance workers who do not come into such close contact with children as teachers do may not need all the personal requirements enumerated above. They should, however, possess more of such qualities than others of their profession who do not work in institutions where children predominate. In general, they should be wholesome people with whom children can be trusted and who can do their work effectively without permitting children and youth to distract them from the tasks at hand. A good janitor or engineer is an asset to any school if he likes children and wants to work with them as well as for them. No school should employ maintenance people about whose moral integrity there is ever any question.

Improved methods of selection. With the extension of teacher tenure and civil service practices, improved methods have been devised for selecting school personnel both in the instructional and in the maintenance fields. In large cities, maintenance personnel are usually under some form of civil service. This prevents the use of school jobs merely as a means of rewarding political work. Civil service boards set standards, conduct examinations, and certify workers for all types of school maintenance jobs. Where honestly and efficiently conducted, such practices improve the personnel employed in schools and give status to those employed as janitors, gardeners, carpenters, engineers, and others.

In the educational fields—instructional, administrative, and special workers of all kinds who work directly with children—certification requirements are usually set up by state law. That is, principals, teachers, school social workers, and school psychologists must hold valid certificates issued by the state, county, or city, before they can be employed. Such certificates are usually issued on the basis of academic work certified by a recognized teacher-training institution or upon successfully passing an examination conducted by the certifying board or its agency.

Many of the larger cities give examinations, often conducted by an outside agency, in the preparation of eligible lists from which *nominations for positions are made*. After such lists have been prepared from the results of a written examination, superintendents usually select their school principals and supervisors, subject to the approval of the board of education. *Principals as well as superintendents usually have a voice in the selection of the teachers for any given school*. In the consideration of candidates for teaching positions, personal interviews are conducted, academic records are examined, and teaching experience is evaluated. Often, too, the candidates are observed in an actual teaching situation before they are selected. An increasing number of school administrators utilize the services of professional training institutions both for facilitating the personal interview and for securing a body of confidential data regarding the qualifications, academic records, personal qualities, and experiences of prospective candidates.

The use of competitive examinations in the preparation of eligible lists from which *nominations for educational positions are made* and the preparation of such lists under rigid civil service regulations are both means of avoiding petty school politics, favoritism, and nepotism in appointments. However, the methods of filling educational positions are still questionable in many places so that charges of political influence and personal favoritism are frequently heard.

The findings of research studies reveal that great progress

has been made in the selection of school personnel. As compared with earlier methods of selection by boards, by standing committees of boards, or by boards of education acting as committees of the whole, the present methods at the worst are far superior. At least, candidates for the various positions today must meet certain standards of academic education, professional preparation for the job, and previous experience before even being eligible for consideration. The evidence clearly shows the advantages of adopting rigid certification requirements and using civil service methods in the selection of school personnel. Moreover, the educational workers in any school system will probably not be much better than the standards adopted for their selection. Consequently, standards should be increased from time to time in order to raise the general professional level of all those engaged in the work of education in the elementary school.

School clerical workers in large school systems are usually selected on the basis of civil service requirements. Such workers must usually be able to do stenographic as well as clerical work. A school clerk should be considered as a minor administrative officer in a school. She is usually the first to receive office callers and can often supply them with the information desired. The position is one that requires both poise and good judgment. The clerk must know when to summon the principal to handle a matter that may present itself. If the routine work of the administrative office is properly organized, many duties can be performed by the clerk without taking the principal's time and with little direction or supervision from the principal. Duties such as keeping the time sheets, preparing the payroll, transcribing records, ordering supplies, and preparing requisitions usually come within the work of the school clerk or secretary. She should also possess enough stenographic ability to handle the school correspondence and carry on the necessary secretarial work.

In general, this position has improved in the modern school and has assumed a place of greater importance than in the

school of a generation ago. With the increased importance of the position, the need for better personnel has increased. School clerks today are usually better selected, have higher qualifications, and do a great deal more educational work than formerly.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING AND QUALIFICATIONS

The catalogue of any recognized teacher-training institution will provide a wealth of courses available for the training of school personnel. Clerical personnel and maintenance personnel require a minimum of professional training. Classroom teachers require not only a broad general education but also definite professional preparation to qualify for their positions. Special teachers and other special school workers require training in their field of special activity as well as general teacher preparatory work. Administrators, principals, and supervisors require still more preparation before they can qualify for their positions.

Clerical and secretarial workers. School clerks and school secretaries should have some preparation beyond that of the high school. In general their education should give them some understanding of the modern social world. They should know how to handle efficiently all the tools of learning—be able to read well and to make computations accurately, have some understanding of accounting, and know something about the field of education. A junior college education might be considered sufficient as far as general schooling is concerned.

In addition, a school clerk should have preparation in the field of business training. She should know the rudiments of filing and office practices. She should be able to type efficiently, accurately, and rapidly and take dictation—at least enough to transcribe letters and the bulletin materials usually prepared in school offices. She should know how to operate duplicating machines like the mimeograph and ditto machines. She should be able to handle school personnel efficiently and know enough about children to deal with them effectively in a school office.

Probably a year of business training beyond the high school or combined with the work of a junior college course could be considered sufficient for a school clerk or secretary.

Maintenance personnel. The chief engineer or custodian of a school plant should have enough educational preparation in the field of engineering to operate the school plant. Where high-pressure boilers are used, he must qualify and be licensed as a stationary engineer. Where low-pressure boilers are used, less preparation and less technical skill is necessary. This person must also have a general knowledge of plumbing, electrical, and ventilating equipment and be able to keep the plant operating efficiently and to direct the work of janitors and other maintenance personnel in their duties. Janitors as a rule need little preparation for their work beyond that which they can acquire under good supervision while on the job. Maintenance workers should be qualified in their particular field, that is, carpenters must know carpentry, plumbers must be qualified plumbers, and electricians must be able to meet the requirements for their trade and do work acceptable to the underwriters.

All school maintenance personnel should have profited from any training or experience that gives them an understanding of the work of a school and of the nature of children who go to school.

Teachers. Very few school systems or state certifying agencies will certify teachers with less than a bachelor's degree from a recognized institution of higher learning. In addition, most cities, states, and accrediting agencies require at least eighteen or more hours of work in the field of education. In fact, the master's degree is often required by city school systems.

In general, teachers should have a broad general education before taking the professional work required for their field of endeavor. All teachers should have some understanding of the physical sciences. We live in a scientific age, and no one can effectively teach in this age without such a background. All

teachers should have an understanding of the social sciences, sociology, economics, psychology, and political science. The importance of social relationships in the modern world is greater than ever before. Teachers need a knowledge of geography, history, and anthropology as well as work in the political sciences. Teachers must have some mathematics, at least arithmetic, algebra, and geometry, because measurement is of the utmost importance. Another general field is that of the language arts. The ability to read effectively, to write clearly, and to speak distinctly are all fundamental in the preparation of a teacher. If teachers cannot handle the language and speech of the country in which they live, they cannot give children training in the most fundamental of the tool subjects. The equivalent of a good general college education is required in the four fields enumerated above.

Teachers also need professional work in the following fields: history of education, philosophy of education, general and educational psychology, general methods of teaching, and general school administration. Furthermore, courses in child psychology, the nature of learning, and child development are needed by elementary school teachers. Courses in tests and measurement and in simple educational statistics are desirable for all teachers. Courses that will give teachers a good understanding of mental hygiene should be required so that all elementary teachers will have a knowledge of and the ability to cope with problems in the adjustment of pupils who have difficulties in school and home. Because guidance and counseling are required of all teachers, some preparation in these fields is also desirable.

The foregoing statements of needs are general in nature and make no attempt to outline a specific curriculum in teacher training. They are meant to be suggestive and the student who desires more detailed information should be referred to the curricula offered in good teacher-training institutions or the courses required by accrediting agencies.

Special workers in elementary education. In addition to the

courses required of all teachers, those teachers who teach special subjects need special training in their specific fields. Music teachers must know how to develop music appreciation and be able to teach singing in the elementary school and develop elementary school bands and orchestras. Teachers of art should know how to teach art in the elementary school and develop art appreciation on the part of children. Children can often express themselves in music and in art when they cannot do so effectively in language. To develop such powers is the function of music and art teachers as well as to teach the appreciation of good music and art.

Teachers in the fields of industrial arts, household science, sewing, and kindred handwork need special preparation in their respective fields. There is growing attention to these fields in the elementary school, particularly in those phases of work dealing with home management, home mechanics, and the art of working about a home and with its modern equipment.

Teachers of physical education need to know and understand their work in the elementary school. They need special preparation in physiology, physical and mental hygiene, and in the physical development of boys and girls with particular reference to the stages of growth found in pupils in elementary schools.

School psychologists should have training in clinical as well as general psychology. They must have a thorough knowledge of testing and measuring instruments and be able to give intelligence, achievement, personality rating, diagnostic, and prognostic tests. A good school psychologist should also be able to direct the work of classroom teachers in the use and interpretation of the instruments of mental measurement.

The school social worker should have some knowledge of education, preferably some teaching experience, and, of course, have a master's degree or its equivalent in social service administration. She must be able to make case studies, do interviewing and home visiting, and be able to interpret the home to the

school as well as the school to the home. A school social worker, counselor, or visiting teacher as she is sometimes called, must be able to advise teachers, administrators, and others in dealing with problem cases. She must also be able to do such a good job that her work will be recognized by any social agencies that may be interested in any of her cases.

School nurses, doctors, and psychiatrists must of course be qualified in their own specialty. In addition, some knowledge of education and of how schools operate is desirable in their preparation. The school doctor should have training in public health administration as well as in general medicine and a school psychiatrist should be a specialist in child psychiatry. Working with maladjusted children requires special training in addition to that usually possessed by regular psychiatrists. Experience in a child guidance clinic is desirable for school doctors, nurses, and school psychiatrists.

• *School administrators and supervisors.* All those who attempt to supervise or administer the work of a school should have a thorough knowledge of the field of elementary education. Some teaching experience, if not too prolonged, is desirable in the preparation of elementary school principals; and more teaching experience is usually considered necessary for those who are special subject matter supervisors. Although this is true in general, the position of elementary principal or supervisor is considered one of professional leadership. The duties that principals and supervisors are expected to perform require outstanding personal qualities, broad academic and professional training, and some school experience prior to the assumption of administrative and supervisory responsibilities. More than half of the states now have specific certificate requirements for administrative and supervisory officers employed in the elementary schools. A person who desires to become an elementary school principal or supervisor must possess not only the essential personal qualities and professional training required of teachers, but also, the special qualities and special training considered fundamental in elementary

school administration and supervision. These requirements will differ somewhat in different states and cities but will usually include courses in supervision, administration, philosophy and psychology, growth and development of children, tests and measurements, and the history of education. *Studies of existing practices and an examination of state certification requirements indicate that the position of principal or supervisor in an elementary school is closed to persons who hold only a teaching certificate unless they also have specific preparation for a supervisory or administrative position. In general, it takes longer to acquire a principalship or supervisory position in a large city than to secure one in a small town or city. Many persons holding supervisory principalships came into their positions from another principalship, indicating that the recruiting for the better positions consists largely in the promotion or transfer of persons who have already attained the position of principal or supervisor. Often a person now in the position of a supervising principal has first been a teacher, then an assistant principal, a teaching principal, and the head of a branch school before attaining the professional status of supervising principal. Principals in larger schools and cities are often persons who have had experience in smaller schools and cities. The majority of the states that require special certificates of elementary school principals have sought to strengthen the educational leadership in the elementary schools by requiring special training and several years of experience. Leadership in elementary education is usually withheld until (1) through apprenticeship or other methods of examination, capacity and leadership qualities have been demonstrated; (2) an internship or other service has acted as a weeding-out process; and (3) actual experience in teaching has provided an opportunity for the individual who aspires to the principalship to acquire insights into school practices both from the teacher's and the principal's points of view.*

The work of the elementary school principal or supervisor makes many demands on the person who would fill it. As a

result, he must be a superior organizer, a skilled administrator, a wise supervisor, and a strong executive and general manager. An elementary school principal must have the ability and training to think through his problems before they require an immediate solution.

A principal should have ability and training that will enable him to anticipate his important problems and to enlist the co-operation of his employed personnel in the search for solutions. To be able to lead in the kind of planning indicated, the principal must possess the scientific training and attitude and must have the energy and inclination to build a foundation for elementary school administration on facts and principles acquired through suitable experience and training.

Individual types of training will no longer suffice as formerly for qualifying for administrative and supervisory work in elementary schools. *Several types of training will be necessary.* A general education to provide a general overview of the major fields of knowledge is fundamental to the individual who would make a career in the elementary school principalship. This general survey of the major fields of knowledge is necessary in order that the principal may have a proper appreciation for the fields of work to which pupils are introduced in the elementary school. The principal will not be required to be a specialist except in the methodology of certain subjects of instruction. He should have preparation in those general requirements demanded for all teaching positions in the elementary school, such as courses on the management of elementary schools, general methods of teaching, and general educational theory and practice without specific reference to the problems of the elementary school principalship. Finally, the individual seeking the career must make specific preparation by taking courses designed specifically for meeting the problems of the elementary school principal.

The principal cannot be a specialist in all lines of elementary school work, but he should have specific knowledge in several fields. He ought to be well acquainted with the nature

of the school population and properly schooled in the psychological problems that arise in the management of pupils. He should also be able to meet demands with respect to general and special methods and assist the teachers in the organization of instructional materials. He should have developed standards in his own mind for evaluating the curriculum. If he doesn't know the differences between a good and a poor curriculum, he will find himself greatly handicapped as a professional leader of his teachers. The principal will also need training in organizing and administering a staff of teachers. He should know the problems of a teaching staff and should understand the point of view of the teacher. He must be able to supervise constructively a staff of teachers. If he regards supervision merely as inspection, he is not equipped for professional service in a modern school.

The principal will need training along the line of teaching and supervising the special subjects. He cannot delegate responsibility for directing the work in the special subjects solely to the special supervisors who come to his school. He must assume responsibility for directing health agencies, for giving educational guidance, for measuring the achievement of his pupils, and for the statistical treatment of school facts. He must have a large, unified view of professional duties so that he will not permit fallow fields to develop in his administrative work. A principal may neglect certain duties merely because he doesn't know anything about them; if he continues to neglect them indefinitely, he will never attain a professional career in administration.

IN-SERVICE IMPROVEMENT OF PERSONNEL

Educational work is continually changing. The materials of instruction, the curriculum, the methods of instruction, and even the equipment and supplies used in an elementary school must be modified with every new advance made in understanding the nature of children and how they learn and develop. New devices, often the result of inventive genius, must be

understood and their operation learned if the worker in an elementary school is to keep up with the profession. The addition of audiovisual aids, the radio, the television, and the motion picture all make demands upon the teacher today in planning a modern program of instruction. As a result, teachers, principals, supervisors, and even maintenance personnel in a school must continue to study their work if children are to have the advantage of new discoveries and new methods. By the in-service training of personnel, school workers have the opportunity to improve themselves and their work. Professional growth of school personnel requires direction and control.

In-service education. Although experience in a job may itself be a means of giving in-service training, it must be supplemented by professional work and an analytical study of the job to evaluate the experience that is obtained. Many methods for giving in-service training are employed.

Visiting and observing the work of others in similar positions will provide new vantage points from which one may view and study his own work. However, visitation and observation should be directed with definite objectives in mind; merely visiting will not suffice. If a principal or teacher visits a colleague in another school, preferably in some other situation similar to his own, where new methods, devices, or materials are being tried, much can often be learned that will improve the work with children in his own school. Each visit should have a definite purpose in mind, should be arranged for, and should be planned in order to yield the best results. Conferences should usually precede and follow each visit or series of visits.

Demonstration teaching is also used to give in-service education. Results of the use of this method may be questioned if it results in mere imitation without submitting what was demonstrated to analysis and critical examination. It is conceded to be an excellent method of training, and one greatly desired by teachers and principals, but its value rests not so much on the skill or success with which a demonstration is done as on the

effect produced on the theory and practices of the observer. Demonstrations may be conducted in a school where the observers work or in some other school. Some of the larger school systems have sometimes set up demonstration schools where particular types of work can be shown by superior teachers. After work has been demonstrated in a classroom, opportunity should be provided for those who saw the demonstration to discuss the lesson fully and freely. Follow-up experiments should then be planned by the visitors. Controlled demonstration and visitation may thus possess training value not found in mere classroom observation. Classroom demonstration has the advantage of giving concreteness to the improvement of classroom work and of utilizing the expertness found within the staff of a school system. Visitation of classrooms by teachers or special demonstrations should be so well planned that the one who is demonstrating knows what the visitors want to see and hear and the visitors know what to look for. Both demonstrator and visitor must be prepared to discuss later the significant features of the work observed.

Another device to give in-service training is the after-school, evening, or summer-term class in an institution of higher learning. After-school and evening classes offered by a university on its campus can be utilized only if the university is geographically accessible to the teachers in a school or school system. This is usually true in the large cities. Sometimes after-school and evening classes are conducted by the extension department of a university in the school or library of the community where the teachers work. In this case the professor comes to the class instead of the students coming to the university. Such extension classes must be arranged by the school administrator and the university, and enough teachers must be interested to form a class in a school or community. Attendance at summer sessions is often required and gives principals and teachers an opportunity to further their education without loss of pay during the regular school term. In some cases school authorities will pay a bonus for attendance at summer sessions. This may be done

by salary increases because of such attendance or by paying tuition for the courses taken. In either case it is a device to provide in-service training of school personnel.

Closely allied to attendance at summer school is the granting of a sabbatical leave of absence for a year's study. In many cases such leaves are granted whereby the school worker does not lose his whole salary but only that portion necessary to employ a substitute during his absence. A sabbatical year may also be used for travel and observation as well as for study. It offers opportunities for professional and cultural contacts that can be utilized in securing in-service training.

The systematic reading of professional books and magazines is another effective method of securing in-service training and professional development. Groups of principals, the teachers of some school subject, the principal and teachers of a school, or any other group of professional workers can profit by some systematic plan for doing professional reading. Each member of the group can provide a book or subscribe for a magazine and then the books and magazines can be exchanged as desired. Such reading should not be sporadic with regard to times of reading or topics selected. School administrators should be held responsible for directing attention to devices and measures out of which will grow incentives for consistent and systematic professional reading. *The development of a professional library in every school and school system is a necessity in modern elementary education.* Teachers as well as principals and supervisors should have a share in the organization of such a library. This can often best be done by organizing a professional library committee. Books can usually be purchased with school funds. The logical person to head such a committee is the school's teacher-librarian. Where a school system will not buy the books, each teacher can submit a book as a nucleus for the professional library. Great care must be used in the selection of books and magazines so that the professional reading materials will fill the needs of the people using the library. The professional reading needs of teachers

in regular classrooms, in special departments, and in general informational fields must be surveyed in building a professional library. Books and magazines dealing with methods of classroom instruction, with educational theory, with professional improvement, with children's problems of adjustment, with child growth and development, and with psychological aspects of educational work have proven of most value.

The educational workshop is a device that has been widely used in recent years to provide in-service education. Workshops may be conducted by colleges and universities and may cover an entire quarter or semester's work in some particular field. Membership in such a workshop has the advantage of acquainting the member with the problems faced by others in other cities and schools, as well as with the skilled leadership of some member of the university staff. Workshops can also be held within a school or more often within a large school system. These have the advantage of working on similar problems affecting many parts of a system. A workshop must be a co-operative undertaking by all of its members. Each must contribute both problems and solutions. Workshops are an excellent device when properly organized and conducted. They fail when those taking part are forced to attend, have no problems that they care to present, and feel they can make no contribution. Workshops can be organized for administrators and supervisors, for classroom teachers in all the subject matter fields, for special-class and special-subject teachers, and for auxiliary workers in education. They may be general in nature, dealing with general problems; or they may be highly specific and closely limited in the field of study. Usually those dealing with specific problems are more valuable than those too general in nature. A good workshop can involve professional reading, expert discussion, visitation and conference, demonstrations, and methods employed in improving school work.

Experimentation and research can be used in giving in-service training of personnel. The encouragement of limited experimentation in special techniques of classroom instruction

and with materials of instruction, with supervisory techniques, and even with the use of different methods of maintaining and operating equipment not only results in the professional growth of school personnel undertaking the experiment but also frequently stimulates other workers to study modern techniques and procedures. The amount of experimentation and research that can be carried on by members of a staff at any one time should be carefully studied. The problems must promise definite benefits for the pupils, the solution of the problems should lie within the training and abilities of those doing the research, and adequate facilities must be available in the school. Research and experimentation can be done by personnel working alone or in small committees of the staff or even by the entire personnel of a school. In general, problems for experimentation should grow out of the local school situation and be limited in number in order that the regular work may progress without any serious interruption from the piece of research being attempted.

Well-conducted staff meetings and conferences, membership in professional organizations, contacts with the community and its cultural agencies, rendering special services, and building professional morale are other methods of giving in-service training to school personnel. These and other devices have been discussed in Chapter 12.

Incentives. Many incentives have been used to further programs of in-service training of school personnel. Incentives as elements in the professional growth of personnel are seldom self-generating or self-perpetuating. The best of workers, if placed in positions where the leadership is unprofessional, will suffer atrophy of professional ambition. Incentives must, therefore, be supplied. Fear of reproof, low ratings, sarcastic remarks, and threats of dismissal are regarded by the best authorities as of doubtful value. Too often they result in the development of inhibitions that hinder rather than stimulate professional attitudes and activities on the part of school workers. Professional recognition is a valuable incentive to growth,

but to be effective it should be timely and not delayed. Proper recognition always acts as an incentive to further professional study and growth. Similarly, professional advancement can be used as a means of securing in-service growth on the part of a staff. The opportunity for rendering any unique service in a school system is always an incentive for workers to strive for professional improvement, especially when recognition for the service is publicly given.

Salary increases are, of course, incentives for in-service growth of personnel. Salary increases are often given as an incentive to summer school attendance. Where salary schedules are operated so that additional training more or less mechanically provides for increases, many workers will be inclined to secure additional training while on the job. In fact, it is difficult to justify regular yearly increases in salaries except on the basis of professional improvement as well as mere length of service.

A challenging school environment may act as an incentive for encouraging professional study on the part of school personnel. Excellent building accommodations, first-class equipment, and modern materials of instruction act as stimuli to professional growth. Poor facilities, on the other hand, may discourage personnel and contribute to lowering of professional morale.

The most challenging problem faced by leaders in elementary education is that of providing incentives for in-service growth of school personnel. If a leader has the ability to do so, elementary school education advances and the boys and girls profit therefrom; otherwise the program suffers and pupils are deprived of their just rights.

Improvement in administration and supervision. Much of the foregoing material has dealt with the in-service training of school personnel, teachers, and others, as it will be administered by a principal or supervisor. In general, most of the methods outlined and the incentives used will be applied by school administrators and supervisors, but administrators and supervisors must themselves improve while in service. Their

experience should also be supplemented by study. They must also do professional reading, attend classes, and engage in workshops to improve their own work. If programs of improvement in service are to be specific and vital for administrators and supervisors, they must be based upon analyses of the duties of elementary school principals and supervisors. Every principal and supervisor should check his own work and duties and compare the time allotment given to supervision, administration, clerical, and other duties with that found most acceptable in the literature of the field and practiced in the best schools. An analysis of the functions of administration and supervision as well as the duties performed is essential in a program of self-improvement for the principal and supervisor.

The chief ways by which a principal or supervisor may keep in contact with modern developments in his field are (1) attendance at professional schools, (2) regular reading of professional magazines, (3) reading of professional books, (4) reading of a general cultural character, (5) membership in educational organizations and attendance at their meetings, (6) visitation of schools, and (7) home study on school problems.

The principal or supervisor must decide his status with respect to research in his school. Some contend that the principal cannot, in justice to his administrative duties, carry on effective research work in his school. Others believe that research is most valuable when carried out in the practical situation afforded by a public elementary school. Still others maintain that the principal should not attempt to do research himself, but should test the results of research carried out in experimental laboratories. The proper course undoubtedly lies between the extremes of the foregoing views. In order to keep in touch with developments in the field, to maintain an attitude of alertness in sensing educational problems, and to develop a scientific attitude in a school staff, a school administrator should engage in those types of research that can be carried on in public schools without disadvantage to pupils and teachers.

The practice of constantly surveying and appraising *one's* own work should be cultivated by a principal. Self-criticism, job-analysis, and self-surveys are all essential to the professional growth of school administrators. Another effective means of preventing stagnation in professional work is to become expert in some particular phase of elementary school work. One may become expert in personnel work, in school records, in curriculum work, in community work, or in educational experimentation.

Any program of professional improvement must be personal in character; that is, imposed on the principal by himself. Whether motivated by ambition for a professional career or stimulated by the desire to better the character of his services, the program of professional improvement must be personally conceived and developed and take root in and grow from the administrator's own professional ideals.

REWARDS FOR SERVICES OF PERSONNEL

The personnel found in any organization will be conditioned by the advantages and disadvantages that the work may possess. Personnel is attracted or repelled in any profession by high or low salaries, by the kind of working conditions, by the security a job offers, and by the chance for advancement. Educational personnel is no exception to these general rules. School maintenance workers, clerical assistants, teachers, and school administrators are all influenced by salaries, tenure, pensions, working conditions, and the social position offered by working in an elementary school.

Salaries. In general, the monetary reward of school work is not great. In large cities janitors, engineers, and other maintenance personnel receive the prevailing union scale for the kind of work they do. They usually have better than the average wages paid for such work in the smaller communities. Clerical workers receive about the same or a little less than clerical workers in industry and business concerns. Salaries of principals and teachers, however, are not high when one con-

siders the amount of educational preparation required to qualify for teaching and administrative positions in the elementary schools. A person entering business with about as many years of schooling as is possessed by a teacher or principal will receive greater monetary rewards. The salaries paid elementary school principals and teachers in many school systems are not so high as those paid in secondary schools and in institutions of higher learning. However, salaries have increased over what they were a generation ago, and school systems are trying to improve monetary rewards and to make it possible for principals and teachers to have a living wage. The opportunity to earn something beyond the regular salary often presents itself. Some teachers and principals can supplement their regular earnings by doing other work outside of school hours. Although this is financially desirable, it is generally not considered good policy. Teaching requires all of one's energies, leaving little for outside work without damaging one's effectiveness as a teacher. Sometimes lecturing, teaching extension courses, and teaching in summer sessions may supplement regular salaries earned during the school term. The opportunity for doing such work is limited and affects only a small percentage of those engaged in elementary school work. It consequently should not be considered when appraising salaries before entering school work.

Tenure and pension rights. The question as to the tenure of a position determines to no small extent the attractiveness of elementary school work as a career. Similarly provisions made for retirement benefits also add to or subtract from attractiveness of positions in elementary schools. In most large cities maintenance and operating personnel and clerical assistance are protected by civil service. In many states principals and teachers are now assured tenure by state laws. This has been true of large cities for many years. Boston has had a tenure law since 1889, and Chicago since 1917. In most places positions in the elementary schools are no longer subject to the vicissitudes of political changes in the government of the cities. In

nearly all cases permanent tenure is not secured until after one has served a specified number of years in a given position.

Pension rights as well as tenure exercise an important influence on elementary school work as a career. Most states and nearly all large cities have pension systems for all those engaged in elementary school work. Clerical workers, janitors, engineers, and other operating personnel also benefit from some form of pension service. Pensions, in general, have increased as salaries have increased. As yet pensions are not high, but neither are they expensive because the state as well as the individual usually contributes to pensions for educational personnel. Some pensions are on a flat-rate basis whereas others make it possible to contribute more when salary rates are higher, thus increasing the amount of the retirement pay.

Working conditions. An individual who chooses the profession of medicine for his career knows that his working hours may be very irregular. A person considering work in an elementary school as a career may expect to complete his required work within the school day. However, he will often find that educational meetings must be attended and other work done outside of the regular school hours of the five school days. Furthermore, the length of a school day may be partly conditioned by the amount of clerical help given principals and teachers. Those responsible for the future of the profession of an elementary school principal or teacher must recognize the fact that clerical duties may interfere with the performance of professional duties. In addition to the hours spent at the school, all principals and teachers will find that they should plan to engage in study and professional reading outside of school hours. Often Saturday meetings and conferences will make demands on their time. The time devoted to these professional activities by elementary principals and teachers has thus been shown to be greatly in excess of the regular hours of the five-day school week.

A person seeking a career in teaching in or administering an elementary school must also consider that much of his work

will be with women and children. The large majority of the teachers will be women, many of the contacts with the home will be with the mother instead of the father, and the pupils will be children under fourteen years of age. This is in no sense a disadvantage, but it is a fact to be considered. If one by nature is not fitted to deal with children, or if he prefers to deal with men, he should not enter elementary school work. Although principals and teachers will meet both mothers and fathers of the pupils, their contacts will be much more frequently with the former than the latter. One must also enjoy working with the younger children found in an elementary school. The individual contemplating a career in the elementary school should, therefore, consider whether he is personally qualified to work with women and young children, as well as with men, because he will be called upon to deal with many more women and children in this capacity than in any other position in education.

Another factor affecting working conditions of personnel of elementary schools is that one will be required to deal with all races, classes, nationalities, and religions. A person having prejudices along these lines will probably not be successful or happy in large metropolitan school districts. Although a principal or teacher may belong to any sect, he must not stoop to bigotry or sectarianism. Any person who has an intolerant attitude toward people of other races, nationalities, or religious beliefs than his own is out of place in an elementary school.

Usually one's place of employment in an elementary school is one of the best in a community because schoolhouses are often among the best establishments in a community. The nation's school buildings, although in many cases inadequate, are yet desirable places to work. From this standpoint, working conditions are usually favorable. However, elementary school buildings are generally below the standard of secondary school buildings. This fact should be considered when deciding between work in the elementary or secondary school field.

Social status as a reward. Whenever an individual chooses

a career, he usually considers the social standing that the career will give him. Although the older professions of law and medicine are more highly regarded from this standpoint than education, yet teaching in general has high standing. However, within the teaching field, work in higher education and in secondary schools is generally considered more desirable than work in elementary schools. These distinctions within the teaching field, especially since single salary schedules are becoming more common, are passing away. On the whole, the social status of a principal or teacher in an elementary school is good. Opportunities for meeting the best people of a community are present; and unless snobbery is found, any home will usually welcome a teacher or principal of an elementary school. People are always interested in those who educate their children, and this can become part of the social capital of all who work in schools. The churches and cultural agencies of any community usually welcome the teachers, and this should prove of value to those who consider work in an elementary school as a career.

Other rewards. In addition to such rewards as salary, tenure and pension rights, working conditions, and social status, the elementary school offers many satisfactions. First of all, one can have the satisfaction of knowing that a position in an elementary school offers great opportunity for personal growth and development. It offers opportunities for advancement and promotion in service and for economic betterment. There is also opportunity for study, self-improvement, recreation, professional writing, lecturing, and evening and summer school work.

The opportunities to render a distinctive service to the children of a community and through them to the whole community should give great personal satisfaction. Some will find satisfaction in the social, business, and varied professional contacts that work in the school affords. There is also opportunity for social contacts through clubs, service groups, and local community and civic organizations. The professional associa-

tions, state and national education associations as well as local professional organizations, will give many satisfaction in the contacts made through them.

Codes of ethics have also improved the rewards for all educational work and one who wants to work with others who have high ethical standards can ask for no more in the way of an ethical code. The teaching profession at least appears to be doing as well as the other professions in this respect.

Work in an elementary school may offer only moderate remunerative rewards, but it does present large opportunities for satisfying service to persons interested in education who are willing to put aside selfish ambitions and work for the interests of the community and its children.

SUMMARY

The selection of personnel in the elementary school is of primary importance. All other factors are secondary to the character, qualifications, and work of those engaged in working with elementary school children. The human element in any school is of more importance than material advantages.

Civil service procedures for selecting clerical and maintenance personnel are better than the older methods used in selecting such workers. *Teacher certification and teacher tenure have improved teacher personnel.* No school system can afford to secure its personnel on any other basis than the best practices now found in the country by proper use of civil service and tenure practices.

Educational workers in an elementary school should be persons possessing the best personal qualifications supported by adequate training and experience. Teachers and administrators need good health and good education and must be people with wholesome, well-rounded personalities.

Every elementary school needs a program of in-service training for its entire personnel. The best qualified worker will profit by a good in-service program that will pay dividends in the improved character of the work of the school.

Many different types of personnel are needed in an elementary school. Regular teachers need the assistance of different specialists and of administrators and supervisors to improve the educational program offered the boys and girls in a school.

Incentives must be provided to secure professional growth on the part of school personnel. Salary increases, provision for further education, recognition of work well done, and a challenging school environment are often used to further growth.

Rewards for service in an elementary school are not found in the remuneration given but in many factors giving personal satisfaction. The elementary school worker is one who can get his reward not by accumulating the most but by serving the children of a community the best.

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Utilizing Community Resources

EVERY COMMUNITY HAS MANY RESOURCES THAT can be utilized in the enrichment of its school curriculum. This is particularly important when the curriculum consists of fruitful experiences in daily living. In the classrooms, the pupils study and discuss significant aspects of daily living. Real learning, however, is not achieved until the pupils experience it in school, home, and community under the guidance of parents and community leaders as well as teachers. In order to achieve the results desired in a given school, the educational resources of the community must be known and utilized in the school program.

COMMUNITY CONDITIONS MUST BE STUDIED

The principal and teachers of an elementary school must study the community to learn both the assets and liabilities that it presents in relation to the educational program. The educational resources or assets should be known so that they may be utilized for the benefit of the pupils. However, the liabilities of the community must be known also, in order that the school program can be developed to compensate for or to correct the handicaps that the liabilities create in pupils' living and learning.

The modern elementary school cannot adopt the attitude

that the school program is static and that the community should adjust itself to the school. The largest single problem for continuous study in the administration of the elementary school is the adjustment of the school program to meet the community needs. The solution of this problem requires scientific study, without which changes in the program would offer slight promise of beneficial results.

The school should not only adjust itself to community changes that are taking place but should become an influential factor in producing desirable changes in the community. For example, a school district is rapidly changing in population makeup or economic status. The school must not only adjust its program to care for the new problems that such a change will produce, but must also provide for a school program that will produce changes in foreign standards and modes of living. The school program will undergo modification because of the population or economic problem, and in turn it should produce desirable changes in the foreign community. In order to accomplish this twofold duty, the school must study its community. It must know the character of the people and the conditions under which the pupils live.

Significance of population data. Population data are essential to the proper adjustment of the school organization. By population data are meant information regarding the nationality, the language, and the mores of a people. The mother-tongue background of the pupils is a matter that can be understood only from population data. When the school knows the mother-tongue origin of its pupils, it will understand better the vernacular difficulties that must be met and dealt with in the school. The language handicaps of the pupils may require curriculum adjustment in English and marked changes in the reading program.

The difficulties of language backgrounds are often noticeable among pupils of the elementary school and at times even in students at the college level. Expressions in which errors characteristic of the vernacular background may be noted persist

and are evinced in both speaking and writing. The Latin, Slavic, Scandinavian, and other groups present even greater problems than those of the English groups. Whatever the foreign-language classification to which the school population belongs, it furnishes an immediate ancestry of words and language traditions that must receive consideration in the organization of the school, and the principal cannot develop an efficient organization for his school without taking the facts into consideration.

Knowledge of community customs. The mores of the foreign groups in the population of a school district are also important factors in the school's curriculum. The traditions of the people, their ideas about education, their feeling toward attendance of children at school, their social characteristics, and their habitual ways of reaction are all a part of the mores of the community. For example, the mores of a certain group of foreign people who are usually segregated and whose children may attend certain elementary schools in large numbers may present very definite problems of curriculum making. The attitude of these people may be that the child should transfer to the part-time school and go to work as soon as he has learned to read and write.

The mores of the parents seriously influence the attitude of children toward school and create problems of curriculum making. The school must meet the problems with procedures designed to counteract the baneful influences of the antischool customs. It is not sufficient to enforce the laws rigidly with respect to compulsory attendance. Attendance must be improved, attitudes must be changed, and both pupils and parents must be led to appreciate the worth of the school through the educational program. These community problems challenge the creative skill of the staff. The staff adjusts the curriculum and organization with the idea of giving the school a greater practical appeal, the school is made a center of community interest and life, and adults as well as children are

served by the school. Gradually the mores are changed, and the school assumes its rightful place in the community.

Analysis of school census data. Reliable school census data should reveal to the school the true educational status of the people of the school district. If the degree of illiteracy is high, school problems will be augmented; if the degree of literacy is high, its difficulties will be diminished. In the case of the former, it may be necessary to establish adult classes late in the afternoon and evening to improve conditions, if such a policy meets with the approval of the central office.

The social and occupational status of parents. Variation in the social and economic status of the families in a school district may create large curriculum problems. The school, therefore, should know the social composition of the people of the district. Do the professional classes predominate, or are the occupations chiefly mercantile or clerical? Is there a sprinkling of technical workers with many unskilled laborers? If the professional people predominate in a community, the school is faced with very different problems in organizing instruction in English, in administering extra-class activities, and in providing for community needs from those of the school that has a population composed of unskilled laborers. In the former case, the school deals with pupils who have, for the main part, good cultural backgrounds. They are likely to be well controlled, amenable to discipline, and advanced in recreational reading and other pursuits of leisure time. In the latter type of community, the children are often unaccustomed to formal training of any kind, unrestrained and rough in play, and habituated to questionable forms of amusement.

Home environment of pupils. It is difficult to measure the home status of the pupils in a school district with any degree of accuracy. A careful study of the physical conditions of a school district should provide the principal with data of great value, not only for the understanding of environmental problems, but also with knowledge regarding the possibilities of the future development of the district. The relation of residential

to manufacturing areas and the building restrictions imposed by zoning standards, fire restrictions, and volume regulations in the district throw much light on the problems of the school population and the future of the school.

The housing situation in the district is also a factor that merits the attention of the staff. The question of the age of the buildings is of importance. A large number of old residences in a community usually invite a transient population of people constantly moving in and out. Parents who constantly seek to better the living conditions of their children and themselves will remain in houses that do not afford comfortable living conditions only until they can afford better quarters. The problem of the transient population in a district where old buildings are prevalent often varies with the general financial situation. The school population ebbs in prosperous times, resulting in decreasing enrollment and the closing of rooms in the school, and flows back in periods of financial depression, filling up vacant rooms and, at times, causing overcrowded buildings. It is not an uncommon experience in poor districts to find families who have moved to the suburbs in times of expanding business activity returning to the old district of poorer buildings but cheaper rents in times of industrial depression. New buildings make for greater permanency of rental tenure, and, hence, in districts where they are common, the policy of organizing the school will differ from the policy that must be formulated for a district made up largely of old buildings. In a district in which the tenement type of building is common, moral problems are often created that will require special organization of all the available social machinery of the school. Children living in tenement districts also present health problems that must be adjusted through curriculum improvement. Such problems often call for a reorganization of health courses and for the services of special health workers.

Unwholesome home and community environments drive the children to school early and cause them to remain late on the school premises, thereby creating problems of guidance of play

experiences. The staff must organize to provide supervision and control over the pupils for a longer-than-normal school day. Early rooms must be maintained; supervision of playgrounds before and after school provided; provisions made for temporary relief of needy pupils; recreational facilities such as reading-rooms, motion pictures, and other activities established; penny-lunches provided; and information must be constantly gathered with respect to the moral welfare of the pupils.

Business enterprises of the community. The business of the community exercises an important influence on the curriculum of the school. Small businesses in the school district may necessitate excusing children early or allowing them to come late in order that they may gain work experience through helping their parents. Hazardous occupations make unstable conditions and often force a child to assume the responsibility of heading a family through loss of a father. Schools of consolidated rural districts, or of rural villages, are often confronted with a seasonal fluctuation in enrollment. In the fall the older boys are needed for gathering the harvests, and again in the spring they are called upon to assist in the planting.

Recreational facilities of the community. The recreational facilities provided for children in a community constitute a problem for the principal and influence his school organization. The character of the motion pictures shown in the community may exert a harmful influence on the tastes and morals of the children. The principal who gains early knowledge of this situation may be prepared to meet it with an organization which will provide wholesome entertainment for the pupils, and, at the same time, improve their tastes in leisure-time pursuits to a point where inferior pictures will have less appeal. An excess number of pool and billiard halls may be operated in the community, exerting a harmful influence on the moral welfare of the younger pupils. There may be a frequency of carnivals that tend to keep young boys and girls on the streets until late hours of the night. Pseudo-athletic clubs that are merely nuclei for the formation of criminal gangs may exist. Dance halls

create problems that involve the welfare of the older girls. Practically all forms of commercial recreation constitute potential problems for the school to solve. In some instances it may be forced openly to oppose them. In other instances it may be obliged to oppose their effects. Undoubtedly the best procedure will often be to organize competing recreational pursuits in the school and thus influence tastes and standards of amusement in the community. Whatever policy is adopted, its success will hinge largely on the accurate data that the school possesses regarding the recreational facilities in the district.

Institutions of the community. The social, philanthropic, and religious institutions of the community, including orphanages, parochial schools, clinics, and juvenile courts, are influences that must be considered in the program of a school. If there is a good clinic in the community, for example, the health program and attendance in the school can be increased by having pupils who require medical aid treated there. Again, the observance of special holidays by religious denominations or homeland societies may be utilized to enrich the educational program.

Orphanages often produce problems in adjustment difficult to solve. The turnover of children in a school located near an orphanage will usually be very large and will call for program adjustments on the part of the school in caring for these children who enter the school in large numbers at any and all times during the year. When the schedules of parochial and private schools in the community do not coincide with that of the public school, playground problems may arise that the school can adjust only in the light of accurate knowledge of the conditions under which these schools are operated. In general, institutions in a community create problems for the school to solve, and the school cannot set up an efficient organization unless it takes into consideration the situation created by the proximity of the institutions to the school.

Economic conditions in the community. The economic conditions of a community should be understood by the elemen-

tary school staff. The curriculum will be influenced by the economic status of the district. If the community is poor, the presence of foreign groups in the school population may determine the emphasis to be placed on such subjects as English and civics. Lack of nourishing food in the homes may make advisable the establishment of special health rooms in the school to bring undernourished children up to normal health standards. The lunchroom may require special adjustment to meet the needs of indigent children. The economic situation that forces both parents to work creates many difficulties for the school. Children from these homes are frequently irregular in attendance at school. The lunch at the morning recess is often their only breakfast. Truancy among this group is often hard to detect because of the difficulty in interviewing parents. The children are left to shift for themselves, usually on the streets, before and after school hours. This condition requires the assumption of responsibility by the school in caring for neglected children. The principal may be compelled to organize a nursery division in the school to care for young children. Recreation centers, Americanization classes for adults, supervision of the playgrounds before and after school hours, and provision for library service through the instrumentality of the school are administrative measures that may be determined by the economic conditions of the community. Economic conditions may compel a modification of the schedule, such as earlier opening or later closing, or may cause elimination of the long noon intermission created by the use of the double session.

The economic factor that has been mentioned exercises powerful influences on the organization and administration of an elementary school. The social, occupational, economic, and moral conditions of a neighborhood may influence the school system to establish Saturday sessions, or even the all-year school.

Community personnel as an educational resource. Parents and community leaders are perhaps the most important of all

extra-school educational resources. The record cards of the pupils may be used as sources of information about parents, but other leading citizen personnel should also be identified and catalogued for use in developing the school's program.

PROCEDURES FOR COMMUNITY STUDIES MUST BE DEVELOPED

If the array of items to be surveyed or studied in connection with community conditions and resources appears formidable to the members of an elementary school staff, and they wonder regarding the time and machinery necessary to such a far-reaching project, the understanding should be developed (1) that the total process of community study is distinctly a long-range enterprise, and (2) that the survey process is an integral part of the regular educational program and is to be apportioned to various levels and departments of the school over a period of years.

Role of administrative office in community studies. Although the main work of community studies is carried on as class work in the various subject fields with the principal's office providing guidance and service to the efforts of pupils and teachers, the responsibility for many types of studies, particularly of general conditions of the nature described in foregoing paragraphs, should be assumed by the principal's office itself. For this purpose, the principal should take stock of, and organize, his resources for studying factors in the community that will vitally affect the educational program.

Among the most important resources at the principal's disposal are the personnel of the school. These include such persons as the truant officer, adjustment teacher, school nurse, school physician, visiting teacher, office secretary, cafeteria manager, and librarian. The second vital resource consists of co-operating and community leaders, including lay workers in community organizations. A third resource is comprised of school records such as personnel folder materials of pupils, membership and attendance records, health data, case-study findings, and the like.

Over-all conditions that vitally affect the program of the school and consequently its administrative organization and conditions regarding which the sensitivity of the community might easily be aroused are of the type that particularly call for office-directed studies. Among these would be nationality, religious background, housing conditions, financial status, undesirable amusement places, or delinquency areas and conditions.

In initiating community studies, there is often little necessity for making specific announcement regarding them either in advance or during their progress, except to those specifically concerned. For example, a study of nationality backgrounds in an elementary population might well be planned and carried out by a committee from such personnel as the principal, adjustment teacher, truant officer, and school social worker through such means as study of school and community records and use of certain checklists or other forms during the course of the regular work of these individuals. A study of undesirable recreation places might be carried out by a committee similarly constituted.

Community studies made by classes. The chief machinery for studying community conditions and resources as these affect the school's educational program resides in the classroom and its work as conducted by pupils and teachers. Class work is a means for identifying, studying, and using community resources in the classroom and also for interesting class members in studying the community.

At first thought, it might seem advisable that surveys be initiated by upper-grade classes. But classes in the primary grades of the modern school provide very commendable examples of what often becomes a lost art when the formalized academic study of the middle and upper grades is undertaken. The primary class, engaged in a learning unit such as the grocery store, the post office, or the farm, usually surveys the possibilities available for visits to, and study of, these agencies. The class members then select the particular place to visit,

observe it, interview citizens about it, and put the things thus acquired to use in their classroom enterprise.

Although classes at all grade levels of the elementary school, therefore, may engage in study and use of community resources, a certain division of responsibilities both by grade levels and by subject fields should be made by the school's curriculum-planning committee in the interests of economy of effort and continuity and balance of the school's educational program. For example, teachers in the kindergarten-primary grades might plan co-operatively regarding the type and depth of studies that the units of learning at that level call for, and teachers in the intermediate and in the upper grades might do likewise for their portions of the school program.

Related to the division of responsibility for study of community resources by program levels is the allocation by subject fields. For example, study of types of reading resources and facilities may be assigned to English; of health facilities, to science; of sports opportunities, to physical education; of neighborhood fine arts resources, to music and art; and industrial agencies, to industrial arts.

The school's curriculum committee may provide information of an over-all nature that will be helpful and suggestive to classes. One aid of this type would be an analysis and a summing up of the various classes of community agencies that contribute to community living and consequently have implications for the educational program. Such classifications would include the following categories of agencies: (1) business, (2) governmental, (3) social, (4) religious, (5) recreational, and (6) educational.

Survey mediums and techniques available to classes. There are many types of procedure available to elementary school classes. Among the more significant are:

1. *The diary survey.* This type of study is perhaps the most effective and widely used means of obtaining pupil reaction to, and participation in, a given activity. It consists of having pupils write informal but systematically scheduled accounts of

their activities as a part of their classroom work. Because a diary is a form of communication, the class work in English is the most effective setting for the survey. Although the diary survey technique may be used for specialized aspects of living and learning, it is most effective at elementary school levels for broad areas, such as leisure, work, or health. It is especially serviceable for getting a picture of the pupils' total living during extra-class hours in school, home, and community, and then noting trends in specific types of pupil experience.

A diary survey may, for example, be conducted for seven successive days, thus covering week ends as well as school days. By making it an activity of English classes, no time need be taken from curriculum activities for recording, and guidance is available to insure accuracy and preciseness. Again, orientation of pupils is indispensable. Prior to undertaking the survey, the pupils should participate in discussions of the diary as a form of expression, as a hobby, and as a record of social activity essential to effective planning of pupil activities and class work. They should also be given assurance that the information in the diaries will be treated as confidential and under no circumstances used for punitive purposes.

To administer the survey, pupils should be provided with a special form covering school, before-school, and after-school activities, and including such items as hobbies, associational activities with friends, church activities, and time of retiring. The data may be classified under headings such as Health, Literary Activities, Civic Affairs, Nonathletic Sports, and Purely Social Affairs, and made available for class use in subject fields and for sponsors of pupil activities. The original diary forms, completed, may be placed in the pupils' permanent personnel folders. Following is a form utilized by the upper-grade pupils of an elementary school, as a part of their English class work.

2. *Survey of subject-field area.* Each subject field has areas in which surveys are of great import. In English, for example, the type of reading resources in the community may be made

DIARY SURVEY RECORD OF DAILY ACTIVITIES

Name Division Teacher
Date Division

Number
of
Minutes

Time

Explanation: *Underline or write in correct word*

Before-School Activities

Religious Activities

Home Duties

Breakfast

Home Duties

Working for Pay

Studying

Walking to School

Riding to School

School Activities

Activities Before

First Class

Study Period

Lunch

Menu

Division Period

School Service

Assembly Programs

School Activities

Sports

Watching

Cooking, Making Bed, Tending Fire

Menu: Coffee, Toast

Washing Dishes, Cleaning

Selling Papers, Housework

English, Science, Social Studies

10 Blocks 8 Blocks

4 Blocks

Street Car, Bus, Automobile

From Arrival to Dismissal

Music Practice

English, Science, Free Reading

School Lunchroom, Restaurant, Home

Sandwich, Coffee, Milk

Officer, Member of Committee, Tickets

Marshal, Office, Library

Civic, Class

Between Dismissal and 6 P. M.

the subject of a survey in the early middle grades, and the nature of the reading activities growing out of these provides very profitable returns for classes in the upper grades. Identification of, and visits to, the libraries, publishing centers, and book-distributing stores of the neighborhood are suitable and valuable survey techniques for the upper class levels. In the study of reading materials and activities, pupils may not only visit the agencies, but may solicit specific information regarding habits of both pupils and adults. Pupils need to be selected, trained, and guided in work of this type. One school found use of the checklists below, which were used by pupils in interviews with the heads of stores and libraries, to be of great assistance:

COMMUNITY READING SURVEY OF LOCAL STORES

Name of Place of Business

Location

Books:

1. Do you sell books? Yes . . . No . . .
2. What are the general prices of the books? . . .
3. Types of books sold: Fiction . . . Non-fiction . . .
Reference . . .
4. What are your best sellers?

a.	f.
b.	g.
c.	h.
d.	i.
e.	j.
5. How many different titles do you carry?
6. Approximately how many books do you sell each month?
7. Who buy the greatest number of books? Adults
- Pupils

Magazines:

1. Do you sell magazines? Yes . . . No . . .
2. How many different magazines do you carry?
3. Approximately how many magazines do you sell monthly?
4. What are the best-selling magazines?

a.	f.
b.	g.
c.	h.
d.	i.
e.	j.

5. What types of magazines do you sell?

Educational	Women's	Current Affairs
Pictorial	Youth	Music
Sports	Out-of-doors	Art
Camera	Men's	Love Story
Comic	Movie	Health
Religious	Stage	News
Scientific	Radio	Detective
Adventure	Juvenile	

Additional types:

6. What are the popular-priced magazines having large sales?

10c	15c	20c	25c	35c	50c
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

Interviewer's Signature

Storekeeper's Signature

Date

The reading in homes was conducted through a checklist filled out by all pupils of the classes concerned. The form used is as follows:

COMMUNITY READING SURVEY OF HOMES

Name Division

English Class Period Room Teacher

Books:

- How many books does your family own?
- How many fiction books? Non-fiction?
- What are the titles of some of the favorite books of the family?

a.	f.
b.	g.
c.	h.
d.	i.
e.	j.
- Does your family buy books from time to time? Yes No
What kind are purchased? Best sellers Non-fiction

Magazines:

- What magazines do you or any member of your family get at home?

a.	f.
b.	g.
c.	h.
d.	i.
e.	j.

In the above list, check the ones you get regularly.

2. How many different types of magazines do you get? Check the list below.

Pictorial	Women's	Song Hits
News	Boys'	Music
Comics	Men's	Sports
Fiction	Trade	Health
Detective	Racing	Geographic
Radio	Science	Art
Movie	Travel	General

3. How many comic books do you get?
- Which ones?
4. Which of these comic books do you consider worth while?
- Reasons for this opinion
5. Which of these magazines do you consider valueless or of very little value?
- Why?
6. Does the family read any magazines published in a foreign language?
- Which ones?

Newspapers:

1. What daily papers does the family read?
2. What Sunday papers does the family read?
3. Does the family read any newspapers published in a foreign language?
- Which ones?

3. *The field trip.* Excursions have often been taken for granted as an activity of the new elementary school, but they demand the careful attention of the discriminating teacher and administrator. They can very easily become stereotyped and wasteful. Experience has shown the need for definite study of field-trip technique before the average teacher can be expected to use the procedure effectively with a representative elementary class and under typical public school conditions.

Two types of field trips are essential, each serving a distinct function. The subject-field excursion is for the purpose of visiting an enterprise or institution of wide interest in a given field, such as the art institute, the aquarium, the museum, or a steel plant. A trip of this nature should be open to all pupils studying a given subject in the upper grades and is usually con-

ducted by an upper-grade teacher after the school day is over or, on Saturday morning. The pupils meet the teacher at the appointed place and hour and, after the visit is over, independently return to their homes. This type of excursion has the advantages of not disturbing class schedules and not being burdensome to teachers. The places visited are usually of the type where expert explanation is provided. Pupils are likewise encouraged to make such excursions individually during vacation, with or without parents.

Another type of field trip is that made into the school community by the class and teacher for the purpose of studying important aspects of living. Taking place during the class period or the period immediately preceding or following—a total period of not more than an hour—it does not unduly disturb class schedules or involve transportation expense.

Unlike the subject-field excursion, this field trip involves careful preparation and systematic guidance of pupil activity throughout as safeguards against waste of time and perfunctory results in the case of inexperienced groups. After some preliminary experience, classes in social studies develop a bulletin of main requirements for effective field trips: summarizing and recording of outcomes, evaluation, and application of results.

Adequate orientation of pupils is found here, as in other aspects of the learning situation, to be absolutely paramount to success in the undertaking. Too often teachers and pupils work against the insurmountable handicap of attempting a field trip with no, or very little, preliminary discussion of its relation to the main learning enterprise. Consequently, a bulletin on field-trip techniques calls for the thorough informing of pupils regarding the purposes and place of the field trip as a way of learning. The following items are suggested as aids in the orientation process:

- (1) The field trip deals with primary sources, as contrasted with the more remote and secondary materials of books, maps, and pamphlets.

- (2) Government commissions, legislative committees, and

Industrial and labor boards use the field survey as a chief basis for recommendations and reports.

(3) Field-trip techniques utilized in natural sciences provide examples for use in the social sciences.

(4) Instruction in the related social-studies fields likewise provides models for use of the field trip.

(5) Business concerns base much of their activity in production or distribution on results of their field surveys.

Preparation for the trip itself involves the planning in detail of such aspects as selection of the area or place to be studied, listing of items to be observed, making of an outline map or chart of routes to be covered, apportioning of responsibilities to individuals and groups, and devising of ways to record data. When the trip is completed, adequate time is permitted for evaluation of outcomes. In evaluation, the following questions may be answered:

(1) Did the field trip develop an understanding of the direct relationship between school life and living outside the school?

(2) Was pupil appreciation of the social significance of everyday life in the community increased?

(3) Did the pupils develop new insights into their everyday environment?

(4) Was a new awareness of problems connected with individual and group participation in community affairs engendered?

(5) How did the learnings of the field trip apply to the objectives of the unit enterprise?

For pupils and teachers to go out into the school community at first requires considerable courage on their part. The neighborhood may not be physically inviting; citizens possibly may be skeptical as to what such groups can learn about the community—don't they see it every day anyway?—and think they could more profitably be in their classrooms doing their lessons; and neighborhood jokesters may at times openly ridicule or otherwise annoy them. Gradually, however, they will begin to

see increasing possibilities in the trips, learn new ways of organizing their expeditions, and obtain more and more effective materials for their class work.

An extremely effective procedure, which should prove the climax of all types of field trips, is to have upper-grade pupils make trips to centers of educational interest independently of teachers or other adults on their after-school and week-end time, keeping adequate records of their observations and making suitable reports for classroom use. (Parents or lay citizens may be enlisted by pupils to replace the teacher in such cases.) Trips of this nature stand the best chance of being carried over as a regular practice of youth and adult life, the objective of all general education.

4. *The anecdotal-record survey.* When it is desired to obtain descriptions of pupils' individual experience in school, home, or neighborhood, the anecdotal record is especially useful. The teacher may use it as either an unorganized medium, taking findings as they come, or she may guide the class to agreement on a topic, such as use of home or neighborhood recreational facilities, in which the anecdotal account is used in systematic community study. One school has developed this type of survey to the point where certain topics are systematically scheduled for anecdotal report in each major subject field throughout the school year. Although the data of such reports cover much more than identification of community educational resources or lack of certain facilities, they reveal very clearly the roles that home and community facilities play in the everyday living of the pupils.

5. *The interview-survey technique.* The interview has limited but nevertheless valuable uses in the elementary school. Pupils must necessarily be selected and given some training. The interview, whether of parent or another person, must be approached through appointment, and a checklist should be used by the pupil interviewers to economize time. A full report to the class is essential.

COMMUNITY AGENCIES MAY CONTRIBUTE TO SCHOOL SURVEYS

The elementary school should not neglect the assistance that the homes and neighborhood agencies may render in the study of community resources. Perhaps the most fruitful of these sources of assistance is the parent-teacher association. The P. T. A. has been known to conduct studies of children's health and community services for child health, as well as studies of neighborhood housing, recreational facilities, and the like. Churches and their organizations likewise often keep records such as birth data, Sunday-school attendance, and participation in athletic and social activities that are useful for schools to obtain and use. Neighborhood newspapers, government offices, and social centers likewise can save the school much time and effort through provision of authentic information of educational worth.

Survey data must be put to educational use. Schools may accumulate a great amount of potentially rich materials connected with community living, but too often these are not put to use in enriching instruction and thus the purposefulness of even the survey and assembling processes is lost. To make community resources actually useful, the materials yielded must be organized and put to teaching and learning purposes in the classroom.

Use of community materials in classrooms. A level of learning at which community resources can be utilized with extreme effectiveness is in the kindergarten-primary grades. The pupils visit a neighborhood store, and what is observed becomes the subject matter of lessons in reading and composition. A setting hen is obtained from a farm, and its advent and consequent hatching of chicks become material for a host of learnings. Pupils bring from the home toys and other exhibits that are made the basis for discussion, visual lessons, and physical play. Because of the use of community facilities for field trips, exhibits, models, and the like, it has been stated that civic and

social attributes are taught more effectively in the primary grades than at any other level.

At all levels, however, pupils may bring to class and organize for learning purposes material from social agencies, such as population data in the form of charts and statistical tables, schedules of neighborhood agencies and their services, and information regarding health services and employment status of parents. Government materials may consist of leaflets dealing with health, industry, law, and the like, and maps, posters, and pamphlets containing data on foreign economies. Commercial agencies may provide posters, booklets, leaflets, samples, free advertising articles, and inexpensive books, maps, and devices prepared for direct instructional purposes.

The problem of propaganda in utilizing such materials must be recognized and dealt with as it occurs. Because pupils encounter propaganda in many forms and guises outside school, it should be realized that they will be better prepared to meet it if they are taught to detect it, analyze its purposes, and avoid its influences through meeting it in school situations. To separate the genuine from the spurious and to capitalize on the good where found should be adjudged a learning experience extremely valuable for making adjustments essential to effective future as well as current living.

Agencies helpful in providing pupils and teachers with informal materials for classroom use include the following:

1. Commercial utilities, including banks, factories, radio, transportation, telegraph and telephone; publishing concerns; and mineral and oil companies.

2. Government agencies, consisting of county boards, county agent, city departments, state departments, Federal bureaus, legislative bodies, park boards, city councils, and welfare organizations.

3. Social agencies, comprising settlement houses, medical clinics, church organizations, civic societies, fraternal organizations, and educational agencies, such as libraries and museums.

To organize, preserve, judiciously discard, and permanently file such community materials provides a challenge to pupils and their teachers. Sometimes the problem is solved by writing a class article, mimeographing it, and distributing it to the pupils. Again, a class scrapbook may be constructed and placed for a period in the school library. Files, of course, may be a crying need; but traditional equipment may not allow for these, and they may be expensive to purchase from local funds. In some instances, teachers have used the drawers in the built-in library cases of the classroom for files, the school print shop fashioning and supplying the needed folders and cards. Thus may be provided drawer files for clippings, a device highly useful. The chief remaining problem is to know when—and to have the courage—to discard many attractive materials in order to make space for ever-newer collections.

Teachers and pupils may be aided by approved sets of free and inexpensive materials provided by professional societies, teacher-training institutions, or educational journals. Teachers may take the main responsibility for ordering such materials for the lower grades and guide upper-grade pupils in cases where the pupils themselves like to send for the materials. Credit in class-work ratings should be awarded for pupil collection of community materials.

Classroom guidance of pupils' home and community activities. To assist teachers, sponsors, and parents to enlist pupil participation in educational and recreational community activities, teachers may prepare and have printed a folder with a title such as "What Your Neighbor Offers." This folder may classify the chief educational facilities of the community under such headings as (1) Sports, (2) Music, (3) Dramatics, (4) Special-Interest Activities and Clubs, and (5) Health. Included may be the names and addresses of the agencies and the scheduled times of their various offerings. Brief descriptions of programs typical of the various agencies, such as social settlements, playgrounds, and church organizations may be included. Classroom libraries may be supplied with the leaflets,

and club sponsors and officers encouraged to use them. Parents and leaders of local organizations find the information contained in the folders useful in guiding children during extra-school hours.

The principle that pupils and school should not only utilize the community for their own respective benefits but should also bring about desirable changes in the community has already been emphasized. Of course, even when directly engaged in improving the community, the pupils have in all probability been receiving greater individual benefits respecting the satisfying of idealistic urges and the realizing of civic accomplishment than they could obtain through use of the community for purely school purposes.

The policy should not be, as some theorists advocate, to organize community children's groups under school sponsorship, but rather to foster pupil membership in existing children's organizations or parent leadership in forming such organizations where the need is clear. The school thus avoids the risk of being regarded as another pressure group and maintains a position of neutrality, while the pupils receive concrete training in using community facilities—a start, it may be hoped, toward lifetime practice. If, on the other hand, the school were to depend on community children's organizations of its own, there would be no assurance that, as alumni, its former pupils would join existing community organizations. The likelihood would be stronger that participation in community betterment might be dropped, as an activity connected only with school and school days.

Vacation use of community resources. Curriculum activities take place during vacations, and the long vacations of summer and those also of the Christmas and Easter seasons cannot be neglected. The policy should be that the most effective educational experiences of the pupil outside of the school are those that naturally and voluntarily grow out of the class work or club work that the pupil does in school. Nevertheless, the concept that education consists of the good life lived day by day

requires guidance just as systematic, if not as formal, during vacation as during the regular school year. Homeroom and class teachers toward the close of school terms should assist pupils to plan their vacations informally; unless they do so it may come to pass that often, regardless of good intentions, most pupils may be left without a clear-cut plan. To promote systematic planning of vacations, a special period should be set aside during the last week of school and a printed chart provided for planning vacations under the guidance of the homeroom teacher.

Though the subject fields may primarily be considered as bases for planning activities, it may be concluded that the most practical as well as most logical basis at times will be the major functions or areas of the curriculum. A chart for this purpose may contain such headings as (1) leisure time, including hiking, cycling, games, listening to radio, factional reading; (2) health, embracing medical, dental, surgical treatments, practicing special diets; (3) communication, covering such activities as home study, summer school, nonfictional reading, and visits to museums; (4) social relationships, including clubs, scouting, camping, picnics, parties, dancing, and dramatics; (5) economic competence, having to do with home employment, saving, budgeting, and the like; (6) ethical character, dealing with practices such as participation in church activities, youth organizations, and patriotic observances; and (7) work experience in home and neighborhood.

The pupils may schedule their proposed activities tentatively under each heading, giving approximate dates. A space may be left for recording results on return to school, stock-taking occurring during the first series of guidance conferences held by the homeroom teacher. To prevent loss of written plans during long vacations, a duplicate form may be placed in the pupil's personnel folder.

Vacation activities may be improved by issuing a mimeographed pamphlet with a title such as "Vacation Hints for Pupils," suggesting numerous places and times for profitable

use of the summer by pupils. The booklet may include a map of places of interest to the pupils.

Stock-taking conferences at the beginning of the autumn semester should be followed by inclusion of the activities in class records with due recognition given to the individual pupil.

Using community leaders as a resource. The elementary school should proceed with caution and foresight in making use of one of its greatest resources, community adult personnel. The first assistance lay citizens can render the school's educational program is likely, at best, to be of a general nature. Thus, a good initial contact is to have them address classroom or assembly groups regarding their views of, and experiences in, the field in which they have displayed leadership. Another procedure is to invite them to luncheon conferences to discuss informally with other lay leaders and staff personnel ways in which the elementary school can more effectively contribute to community improvement. Later, these lay leaders may be invited individually to small conferences of teachers and pupils where they are likely to be mainsprings of discussion and planning. At a still later stage, they may work with pupil leaders and teachers in guiding individual pupils and pupil groups in activities that they themselves have helped to plan.

An illustration of the foregoing evolution of a lay citizen's participation in the school's educational program is afforded by the activities of a neighborhood dentist in connection with one school's work. He first attended one of the school's luncheon conferences on health. Later he addressed an audience made up of science classes in the school auditorium. Soon he was being called in to work with small groups of teachers on curriculum problems for health classes respecting care of the teeth. In his office he diagnosed dental difficulties of needy boys and girls and assisted them to obtain the services of clinics in cases where he could not include them in the free and inexpensive services he continually rendered. Schools have experienced similar evolutions of participation in the educational program on the part of physicians, pastors, labor leaders, social

workers, public officials, playground directors, county agents, and personnel managers of commercial and industrial concerns.

Lay leaders, once their interest in the school's program is enlisted, may make material contributions in the form of donations of their agencies' services, of funds earmarked for particular school purposes, and of unique types of educational equipment. Thus, election commissioners may provide loans of voting machines for practice by upper-grade pupils, utility companies may furnish stage demonstrations for science assemblies, newspapers may furnish extra copies of articles on civic problems, and P. T. A. and individual benefactors may provide funds for library books, musical instruments, or pictures for school corridors.

THE SCHOOL UTILIZES COMMUNITY EXTENSION RESOURCES

The modern elementary school does not depend wholly on its own classroom guidance of pupil activities—important as this is—but utilizes all resources at its disposal to extend its educational program into the homes and other community areas. For this purpose, it makes the fullest possible use of the communication agencies within the community that have been identified through school surveys of the nature previously described.

The local and metropolitan press is used not only for descriptions of important school events but also for illustrating work in the subject fields in colorful and dramatic ways.

House organs of libraries, playgrounds, churches, and other educational and recreational agencies should be used for publishing school items of interest to the community and for advertising community activities and movements to the pupils.

Radio and television stations may be employed, after appropriate relationships with the management have been developed, for bringing class and club activities of the school into the homes and other neighborhood centers. English class work is a suitable medium for maintaining relationships with these important extension agencies.

Field houses, parks, libraries, stores, vacant lots, and social centers may be profitably used by the school for holding educational exhibits, science demonstrations, art activities, and the like. Projects thus conducted not only improve school-community ties and bring new understanding of the school's program to parents and other lay citizens, but they also give pupils unique training in planning and carrying out learning enterprises under colorful and realistic settings.

SUMMARY

The program of the elementary school cannot be related effectively to the daily living of the pupils unless the educational resources of the community are utilized realistically. This means that *the school must study its community to identify conditions both favorable and unfavorable that should be factors in shaping the educational program.* The school should strive to *compensate for deficiencies in the community's living resources through enrichment of the school's educational program.*

The staff of the elementary school should not be deterred through lack of technical survey personnel or equipment. It can conduct its study of community resources chiefly *through surveys made by classes in the course of their regular work,* though surveys of over-all curriculum or administrative work may be carried out by the principal's office with the aid of P. T. A. personnel or representative school-community committees. Staff members should be mindful that, although pupils are guided to make use of the community as a laboratory to improve their living and learning, they also have an *obligation to improve their community by improving current, and developing new, resources for its betterment.*

Principal and teachers should avoid the error of setting up special agencies of their own in the community, for this may cause the school to be regarded as a pressure agency competing with other local agencies. *The school should utilize existing community agencies; and if needed agencies of an educational*

nature are found to be lacking, school-staff members should stimulate community groups to sponsor the establishment of the agencies desired.

All of the school's use of community agencies, finally, should be confined to educational objectives and should be devoted to a sustained, inclusive movement for the improvement of its educational program.

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School and Home Relationships

ONLY IN COMPARATIVELY RECENT YEARS HAVE educational theorists and school workers given any appreciable attention to, or shown any measurable recognition of, the significant role of the home in the educative process. This is a surprising situation in view of the facts that the home in ancient times was the chief agency of education and that parents of modern times bear the legal responsibility for seeing that their children are educated. Accepted educational objectives, such as those stated by Spencer and the Committee on Cardinal Principles of secondary education, should have made the matter clear to educational workers for decades past.

The chief factor in bringing about the recognition of the function of the home in the educative process is the emergence of the principle that education is guidance in the activities of everyday living. The home, therefore, as the place where most of the child's living actually occurs is, in the very nature of the situation, certain to have a significant role in education.

It is, or should be, obvious that parents begin to serve as teachers from the day of the child's birth. Perhaps it is because education has been so commonly conceived as a limited, formalized schooling in fundamental skills in contrast to guidance in carrying out the activities essential to successful, well-

rounded living, that parents, as well as teachers, have failed for so long to realize that health, family living, ethical character, citizenship, and wholesome recreation constitute responsibilities of the home as well as of the school. The fact that such expressions as "Dame School" and "School of Parent's Knee" characterize situations in the story of school development shows the historical role of the parent as teacher.

The most convincing example of the educational role of the home, however, is the change produced in the behavior of the child during the infancy or preschool stage of his development.

THE ROLE OF THE HOME IN THE CHILD'S PRESCHOOL CURRICULUM

The child's earliest world is the home and his education begins with the training his parents¹ give him in connection with protecting his life and health, meeting the child's dietary requirements, caring for his bodily needs, and insuring his safety. As the infant develops, he begins to share these responsibilities with his parents. Not only are habits in these areas firmly established as the months and years of infancy progress; but habits in other areas of living, such as communication, play, religious exercises, getting acquainted with others, satisfying aesthetic impulses, caring for clothes and toys, work experience, and thrift, are firmly established.

Characteristics of the infancy period. The period of infancy is characterized by rapid physical growth. Social development begins slowly and is extended in connection with language growth. Children who speak clearly and spontaneously make social adjustments more readily than those who cannot talk well. Girls develop linguistic abilities somewhat faster than boys. The period is characterized by rapid physical growth and activity, particularly in the later stages. Motor co-ordination is a gradual development. Early aesthetic interests grow through exploration and manipulation, the child learning through touch,

¹ Paul R. Pierce, "Chicago's Preschool Curriculum," *Elementary School Journal*, LIII (November, 1952), 138-43.

taste, and feeling. Thinking and reasoning are quite limited in the preschool period. Children at this age show definite ego-centric characteristics, being negative and resistive to adult desires; but these tendencies are modified through social experiences with attendant increase in emotional control. The preschool child shows a marked tendency toward active, imaginative play.

Resource persons assisting parents. The parents, in their teaching role during the child's infancy, have resource persons who render specific educational assistance. The person who first serves in this capacity is, of course, the physician—often an obstetrician who presides at the child's birth and advises the parents regarding his subsequent diet and other health safeguards. In addition to the obstetrician, there may also be the supplementing services of a pediatrician and a family physician. The clergyman is another resource person who frequently serves parents in early days of the child's life in initiating him into religious environment and practices. During this period, too, the dentist advises the parents regarding training the child in care of the teeth.

Other personnel serving as resource people for parents are grandparents who assist in developing habits of play, of giving and receiving affection, and of recognizing authority. The policeman on the corner assists in developing the child's safety practices; the postman, storekeeper, and neighbors widen his world; and older brothers and sisters, together with certain playmates, have an important role with the parents in shaping the child's learnings in the home.

In many homes, pupils have the advantage of guidance of a teacher of the nursery school, the nurse, and the governess during the infancy period. The Sunday school or other religious instructors are further resource people at the disposal of parents.

Significant preschool learnings in the home. When the child arrives in the kindergarten at the close of the infancy period, the home has equipped him with a number of extremely sig-

nificant educational products. To enumerate, it has taught him a language which he can speak, understand, and use effectively in all his relationships with others. When it is recalled how difficult it is for the school to teach a pupil a new language that he can use with even a small degree of facility, the outstanding educational achievement the home has accomplished in the case of language alone must be fully recognized and appreciated.

The home, however, has also taught the child how to care for his clothes, move about, feed himself, attend to his toilet needs, play with toys, wash himself, and observe the most important rules of safety. He has thus been educated in the elements of caring for his physical welfare.

In the realms of mental, ethical, and aesthetic learnings, the home has achieved progress in educational guidance of marked advantage to the school. The pupil has achieved beginnings in number concepts, in drawing, in music, and in story literature. He has developed religious concepts and practices, together with a sense of right and wrong. And extremely important, he has developed in human relationships to where *he is a successful, worthy personage in his small world of home and its surroundings, able and qualified to become a successful member in a new and important addition to that world, the school.*

THE SCHOOL'S PRESCHOOL RELATIONSHIP WITH THE HOME

Though the home has been shown to have virtually the sole educational guidance of the child up to his fifth year, this does not mean that the school should stand idly by and await the time when the home puts the child, with his initial educational achievements as described, in its care.

Improving preschool guidance. The fact that the home, aided by the child's natural powers and the family's environment and effort, achieves marked results in initiating the child's education, does not mean that the learnings of infancy could not be immeasurably improved. Much of the educational

accomplishment of the home in the preschool age, it must be recognized, is achieved in an educationally undirected and incidental way. How much better this educational accomplishment might be if the home had the active assistance of the school during the infancy period can be easily appreciated.

The advantages of the nursery school readily come to mind at this point, and this extension of the pupil's schooling should be utilized wherever it is sound and available. However, because acceptable nursery-school facilities may not for a long time be available for the majority of pupils, the school may well initiate the partnership with the home in the pupil's preschool period that it would be bound to assume in any event after he had entered the school. If this is done, much of the abruptness of the break between informal home living and formal schooling will have been overcome by the time the child enters school, to the increased economy of school effort and home equanimity.

Here a question may occur respecting the school's assuming any responsibility for the preschool training of the child. Such a question might be based on a doubt as to the home's welcoming what might be construed as interference in home life by the school, or its adding to the already heavy duties. Such reasoning would ignore not only the lightening of the guidance work of the home that would result from the school's assistance; the preparation and consequently easier orientation for school on receiving the pupil for beginning school work; and most important of all, the educational gains to the pupil, the common objective of both the home and the school. The gains to home and school would be reciprocal in the improved guidance afforded the child by the home.

Procedures in school's preschool work with home. The first problem for the school, if it is to render preschool service to the home, is to find what homes in its district have children of preschool age, and next, to establish working contacts with these homes. To identify the homes may not be so difficult as at first appears, because many of these homes already have

pupils in the school and the names of preschool brothers or sisters will in such cases be indicated in the pupil's personnel records. A simple survey, conducted by the school with the assistance of the attendance officer or P. T. A. leaders, will readily reveal the presence of the other preschool children in the elementary school district.

Possibly the best introduction that the school can make to its enterprise of obtaining educational contacts with the homes is to make unmistakably clear the nature of the services it can render to parents. The Chicago Public Schools, for example, furnish a booklet² to homes describing the characteristics of children during the various years of the infancy stage, and the activities of living that children should engage in during each of these years. These activities are the ones classified under nine major functions of living by the regular curriculum committees for the period of infancy, and consequently they are in the same framework of scope and sequence as the activities for the later stages of pupil development—in short, they are an integral part of the regular curriculum.

When the parents of preschool children have specific information of the foregoing type provided by the school, they are likely to realize that they not only have authentic printed material to inform them of the living and learning needs of their children, but that they also have in the school a source of technical advice and assistance in guiding the children to carry out these experiences, not naively, but intelligently and in conformance with sound educational principles. They see, furthermore, that with the interest and assistance of the school, many activities connected with the care and upbringing of their children that formerly appeared to be routine or even drudgery can now be made purposeful and constructive for the development of the children.

The means of effecting direct contacts with parents may include the following measures:

1. Organization of seminars or workshops for parents of

² *Ibid.*, p. 140.

preschool children, either by the school or the parent-teacher association, or by both working co-operatively;:

2. Inclusion of parents who have only preschool children in the parent association and in parent-teacher education projects and assemblies of the school.

3. Regular issuance of a newsletter, dealing with preschool problems and other types of information to parents concerned;

4. Conferences with individual parents of pupils regarding their preschool children when they visit school for sundry purposes;

5. Judiciously arranged visits of school social workers and nursery or kindergarten-primary teachers to the homes; and

6. Provision of technical information supplied by the school physician, psychologist, guidance worker, or librarian, within appropriate limits, to homes having preschool children.

THE SCHOOL'S CONTINUING PARTNERSHIP WITH THE HOME

The closer the relationship between education and successful living is made, the more apparent it becomes to teachers and parents that their interests and responsibilities connected with the child are common and consequently should be shared. If the health, the citizenship, the safety, the leisure pursuits, the spiritual and aesthetic needs, and the communication skills are the responsibilities of both the home and the school, it is inescapable that parents and teachers working together with the child ought to be able to discharge their responsibilities better than they possibly could working separately.

School takes lead in developing school-home ties. Because the objective of school-home partnership is education of the child, the school should assume the initiative in effecting the desired relationship. The school has the professional skills, resources, and obligations essential to this task. It has virtually the same responsibility in determining the framework within which the home will function in education that the physician's office or the church would exercise in the respective areas of family health or religion. It would, however, take the home into

partnership with respect to the nature and purposes, as well as the practices, of education in a democratic manner.

School delineates spheres of home participation. A distinction that must be observed in developing working relations between school and home is that the area in which such co-operation can be achieved lies chiefly in the nontechnical spheres of the general curriculum. The school should, for example, enlist the co-operative efforts of parents in guiding the recreational reading of the child, but it should reserve the techniques of learning to read and the development of skills for improving reading ability to the direction of the professional teacher. It likewise should seek the assistance of parents in guiding pupils in the wise use of money, but should assume the responsibility for teaching in the classroom the arithmetic skills for distinguishing money denominations and values.

Almost the sole function of the parents in specialized areas of education at the elementary school level is guidance of children in the selection of special-interest activities affecting their recreational or long-range avocational or vocational living. Examples would be club pursuits or specialized work in instrumental or vocal music, painting, dramatics, or handwork of a type attracting only children gifted in these areas.

Homework concepts to be clarified and improved. An area in which the school should delineate the home's educational responsibility is that of homework. The conventional concept and practice of homework is for the teacher to assign exercises in such skills as arithmetical processes, language analysis, or problem solving in social studies or science. The exercises thus assigned are not always preceded by adequate classroom instruction nor selected on a purely practice level. As a result of inadequate classroom instruction or the encountering of increasing levels of difficulty in the exercises, parents and other members of the family are often obliged to attempt to teach the pupils in skills, a responsibility that definitely belongs to the school and its professionally trained staff.

The risk of assigning homework in practice of skills that are

not on a purely practice level for many pupils should cause schools to reserve supervision of practice in technical academic skills to the confines of class and study periods. The schools should enlist the guidance resources of parents in nontechnical but nevertheless essential abilities of the pupil in extra-school hours. Among these are recreational reading, outdoor play, enjoying appropriate radio or television programs, playing selected phonograph records, or assuming appropriate chores and tasks. One of the best contributions parents can make to the educative process is to facilitate the pupils' carrying out of creative activities growing out of work of the school. Examples of this would be pupils' planning and constructing dioramas, improvising simple dramatizations, drawing pictures, constructing objects in home workshop, and the like.

Procedures in effecting working contacts with parents. The most difficult responsibility of the school is not so much in defining areas of guidance by the home as in effecting the contacts and developing the relationship essential to insuring successful and continuing assistance by parents.

In seeking realistic points of contact with the home, the school should first examine basic interests in school work that parents may already possess. It should capitalize existing school-home contacts that are of greatest interest to the parents. These will center chiefly around the welfare of the child who is the best, as well as the closest, link that the school has with the home.

Regular conferences with parent about pupil progress. No aspect of school work holds more interest for the parent than the teacher's report of the pupil's progress, and no better incentive than this exists for bringing the parent into purposeful contact with the teacher. The conventional way of reporting pupil progress to the parent is the report card, a highly mechanized statement limited chiefly to percentage marks in the subjects studied. Though some attempts have been made to improve the content and makeup of this card, it still retains the basic weaknesses of a condensed written report. Under few

circumstances would a parent deal with his physician, his lawyer, or his clergyman on such a distant, one-sided basis. There is even less reason why he should do so when the emotional, mental, moral, and physical development of his child is at stake.

Better than the conventional report card is the system, already practiced in the better schools, of having the parents come to the school for a conference with the teacher regarding the pupil's progress. In some of these schools, the conference becomes a reciprocal report, the parent telling the teacher about the pupil's activities in the home as well as hearing the teacher's report about what the pupil accomplishes in school. The parent tells the teacher about the pupil's play with his fellows, his choice of radio programs, the kinds of movies he attends, his religious activities, and his follow-up of activities begun in the school. The teacher takes note of these as measures of her teaching effectiveness. In turn, the teacher shows the parent test results, papers, and other evidences of the pupil's class work. He tells how the pupil works with others, the kind of school friends he makes, and the extra-class activities he likes, pointing out items calling for improvement as well as those that are satisfactory. Often the teacher gives the parent exhibits of the pupil's work to take home.

The advantages of such a teacher-parent conference are numerous. The parent's desire to follow his child's progress is a powerful factor in bringing him to the school to discuss matters with the teacher. Here he not only gets a well-rounded report of the pupil's work; but more important, he finds that he can do much to improve his child's education. He discovers that his own interest in, and guidance of, his child are recognized and used by the school. As he shares problems regarding the child and plans attack on these problems with the teacher, the parent experiences a lessening of guidance cares at home and comes to appreciate the reciprocal advantages of school-home partnership.

The conference of parent with teacher regarding the pupil's

progress is available to every school. It does not involve extra work for teachers, because it eliminates the routines of filling out report cards and getting them signed and returned. Moreover, it is done four or five times, instead of eight or ten times, yearly. Changes in time schedules such as replacing morning hours on the days of conferences with evening hours, are made so that the teacher does not work extra hours because of the procedure. In emergencies, teachers make home visits or meet the parent at school during class hours. If the traditional school administrator feels disturbed at such irregularities of schedule, let him recall that he is a salesman of good education and that a successful salesman meets the convenience of his customers, in this case the parents.

Home visitation by teacher. The conference on pupil progress provides a good beginning for meetings of parent with teacher and for acquainting the parent with his role in the educational program. However, the problem of guiding the pupil democratically in day-by-day living calls for many kinds of conferences. In these, the pupil, who is always the most effective link between the home and the school, is made a partner of the parent and the teacher.

The visit of the teacher to the home, if used discriminately, is an effective type of school-home contact. This is because the home is so important an area of pupil living. Teachers have found that making an appointment in advance helps to put the parent at ease and paves the way for a cordial working relationship with him. If the pupil is made a true partner, the way is opened to easy appointments and even voluntary invitations from the parent. The school program provides for the teacher's visiting homes during school hours when this is more convenient to the parent.

Staggering teacher hours to permit home contacts. The school likewise staggers the schedules and services of teachers to cover late-afternoon and evening hours, week ends, and vacations in order to visit and to co-operate more fully with

the home and community agencies in insuring continuity of activities of successful living for pupils.

Parent participation in curriculum making. Classroom visits by parents, when adequately prepared for, yield good returns. The parent is made acquainted with the main purposes and plans of the work in progress. He is invited to participate in considering the phases of living with which the class is dealing. At times he is invited to present to the class some phase of home or community life in which he has acquired a recognized proficiency. Pupil-parent conferences provide opportunities for the pupil, using interview forms and checklists, to discuss learning problems with the parent. The pupil transmits the views thus obtained to the teacher. At intermediate and secondary levels, such interviews are an especially effectual type of working tie between classrooms and the home.

Parents' sharing in curriculum making is accomplished by enlisting them to work with teachers and pupils in total-school committees and also with smaller groups of pupils and teachers who plan and carry out grade or class projects together. Such participation enables the parent both to understand, and to have a voice in, the educational program. The school arranges the meetings at times convenient to the parents, during a luncheon or tea, or during special curriculum conferences. The pupils share with teachers the responsibility for having the parents attend.

Guidance contacts directly affecting pupils are the objective of all school-home relationships. They are varied in nature, ranging from classroom action in which the parent addresses a class on child or youth interests, demonstrates a particular skill, or discusses family living, to the more informal guidance of his own boy or girl through telephone calls, written communications, or impromptu interviews with the teacher.

Though parents are the ones legally responsible for the education of the child, older brothers, sisters, uncles, aunts, and grandparents are often deeply interested in his educational guidance. These adult members of the home may actually have

more time to devote to the child's educational interests than either of the parents; consequently the school should when possible enlist their interests and services, too.

The school needs to develop many learning activities that are especially related to home living and to the interests of parents. These are termed "threshold" activities because of their usefulness in initiating parents into the guidance process. An example is the renovation of old furniture by art classes. In the upper grades, pupils bring chairs and other articles of furniture to the school and there renovate them under the instruction of teachers. Parents assist the teacher in guiding this work after receiving an apprenticeship in it, and they continue this guidance in similar work of pupils in the home. Another example is for pupils to construct a model room in the school in connection with the work of the home mechanics classes. Parents work with the teachers in guiding pupil's selections of decoration, furniture, and other facilities of the room. This involves tours to view model rooms of department stores for information about styles, functions, and costs.

Other examples of threshold projects that may be cited are having gardens on roofs at school, repairing plumbing and electrical equipment in home mechanics classes, and making garments and preparing meals in home economics classes.

THE SCHOOL'S CURRICULUM IN FAMILY LIVING

Because the family is such an important social unit in the life of the community as well as of the individual, the curriculum of the school has as one of its main objectives the worthy living of the pupil in his home. This covers not only the use of the home by the individual but also his contribution to the improvement of his own living in the home, and that of other members of the family; not only his living during the period of schooling but also his living during post-school life. This is not solely a matter of school responsibility at its upper levels such as high school and college; it affects the pupil at all stages of his life and consequently is dealt with by the school as early

as the preschool and primary program and on throughout the entire range of formal schooling.

Improving family living is a major curriculum area. In order to insure that contribution to full and happy family life is adequately treated throughout the pupil's span of living, the school's curriculum makes family living a major area of living and learning.

The area or function of family living is analyzed into its constituent activities, and each of these activities is allocated to the appropriate stage of pupil development and to the subject field or other area of the school program in which it is to be a subject of instruction and consequently a matter of school-home guidance.

Significant curriculum aspects of home living. When the area of home living is analyzed, some of its important aspects are found to be, in brief, as follows:

1. *Experiencing family affection and security, involving the assurance of parents' love and care, and returning this affection to parents and other members of the home circle, throughout all stages of pupil growth, including adulthood;*

2. *Acquiring experiences in family responsibilities, which encompasses sharing in family plans, chores, interest in the father's occupation, social affairs, budgeting, and misfortunes and successes of various family members;*

3. *Co-operating with members of the family, such as caring for younger members, sharing in use of television, helping to entertain visitors, and the like;*

4. *Building good school-home relationships, including inviting parents to school assemblies, making fair reports of school living to family members, and participating in parent-teacher-pupil association; and*

5. *Participating in activities that promote wholesome sex knowledge, such as raising plants and animals, accepting behavior mores of one's sex, and including members of opposite sex in activities.*

The home as a physical area of living and learning. As an aid to recognizing worth-while activities of home living and aiding parents in guiding these, the school will find it advantageous to consider the main divisions of the home, such as the living room, kitchen, bathroom, bedrooms, basement, lawns, and garden, and how these may most richly and usefully contribute to the well-being and advancement of the pupil.

Building model houses and rooms in the school and dramatizing the things that children and elders do in them involves serious study, discussion, and teacher guidance. These activities introduce, in children's earlier years, the learning methods of seeing, practicing, constructing, and discussing, in addition to the academic procedures of reading, writing, and listening to the teacher.

As the maturity level of the pupils increases, study of living connected with garden, lawn, and kitchen reveals work-experience possibilities that would otherwise escape notice; analysis of living room services suggests activities of recreation, decoration, and family relationships; and inquiry into bathroom and bedroom uses discloses activities for learning purposes connected with cleanliness, rest, and a host of health needs. Thus study of the various divisions of the home serves to insure that activities selected for learning purposes in the major areas of living will be realistic rather than visionary, well-rounded rather than fragmentary.

Subject fields as vehicle for learnings in family living. Because classroom guidance is essential for all daily living activities utilized for school learning purposes, it is necessary to allocate the varied activities of the home to the subject fields and other program areas most appropriate. Recalling that the homeroom, the auditorium, and the guidance center are actually classrooms, guidance for certain family-living activities may be assigned to these program areas. Social studies, language arts, home mechanics, science, physical education and health, art, and music are subject fields that share classroom guidance responsibilities, with the homeroom also prominent.

The anecdotal record, verified by a parent, may be used as a means for facilitating the parent's partnership with the classroom teacher, for curriculum activities carried out in the home.

ASSOCIATIONAL RELATIONS OF PARENTS AND STAFF MEMBERS

The elementary school should affiliate with established associated groups of parents such as the nationally established Parent-Teacher Association and stimulate organization of associated groups, such as mothers' clubs, on a local basis. Parent associations take various forms according to the services they render. Whether an organization of parents and teachers is national or local in scope, the key to its effectiveness lies in the interest and action displayed by the individual school.

Goals of school-home associational relations. In developing effective associational relations with parents, the principle of democratic action is paramount. Parents, teachers, and pupils work co-operatively, their common purpose being the improvement of the educational guidance of the child. Whether the organization be a mother's club of the primary grades or a father's group at the upper-grade level, it does not function independently of teachers and principal. The unifying factor is the school program, and the guiding spirit is the school's professional staff.

The parent association, in carrying out its goal of improving the educational guidance of the child, may render many types of aid, both indirect, such as improving school conditions and facilities connected with educational work, and direct, in which they serve as assistants to teachers in school processes. Types of improving conditions for pupils may take the form of raising funds, establishing lunch facilities, or donating books and other types of educational equipment. Parents may serve as direct assistants to, or substitutes for, teachers by conducting school tours, supervising lunchroom periods, caring for classes during teachers' meetings, co-operating in Hallowe'en and other holiday projects, sponsoring affairs connected with

graduation, and providing resource persons for teachers and pupils in the class work.

Flexible patterns of associational organization. The internal organization of the parent association may prove an important factor in its success in serving the school. The principle of flexibility in over-all organizations is important because a complaint sometimes voiced by parents and teachers is that the management of the unit is too highly centralized. The parent officers of the association in such instances are prone to deal with the school office in matters that are favorable to the school's administration, such as gifts to the school, charity drives, and betterment of school physical conditions. Although all of these are worthy activities, they are of the type which attract only a small number of parents of dynamic character. Thus, the interest and activity of the large body of parents and teachers are by-passed, and centralization is accentuated. Only small numbers of parents attend meetings and plan activities though large numbers of parents and teachers may be nominal, nonactive members.

Centralization of interest and activity is a problem that many large voluntary organizations, whatever their nature, are forced to face. The answer lies in part, at least, in the parent organization's pursuing interests of concern to all parents. The most important interest to parents of elementary school pupils is undoubtedly the educational program of their children. Knowledge of, and participation in, the educational program should be the main concern of all parent associations.

Experimentation of schools to develop effective types of parent associations has generally taken the form of decentralization in order to make associational participation closer to, and easier for, large numbers of parents. Sometimes the association has divided the district up on the basis of smaller physical zones; again, a functional inner unit, such as the *homeroom of the pupils*, has been the basis for decentralized effort. Perhaps the most effective unit has proved the school term, in which parents are organized in blocks by the semester

or year. Thus the parents of Grade 5A pupils, whose children are at the same stage of development, would have common interests. The parents, like the pupils, should become well acquainted and work effectively together as they progress through the elementary school span. Special periods, such as graduation, would find them united on many problems of policy and action. Their efforts would be facilitated as they become acquainted with the pupils' educational program and progress in the program, as all advance together.

For small schools, grouping of parents by kindergarten-primary, intermediate, and upper-grade levels, may prove an advantageous pattern for achieving a nice balance between what might be termed *local autonomy and central authority* in the parent association.

To achieve desirable unity in the decentralized associational organization, each small unit should elect a delegate to a central council that would legislate for the organization as a whole. The regularly elected officers would serve as the executive officers for the central council or board.

Working in smaller groups should be capitalized to insure informality in meetings. Although certain parents particularly enjoy organization activity, many are likely to be alarmed at the possibility of being asked to speak or otherwise take a prominent role in activities. Consequently it is well to keep procedure simple and possibly to dispense with parliamentary control in the section meetings. In financially less-favored communities, drives for funds and even the required payment of dues might be eliminated. It must be recognized, too, that a rigid constitution or hard and fast regulations hamper easy associational action.

Role of older pupils in associational action. The fact that pupils in the middle and upper grades are ready to assume certain responsibilities in connection with school-home ties indicates that their services may well be capitalized in parent association activities. From the earliest grades, the pupil is by far the most potent link between teachers and parents; conse-

quently the older pupils of the elementary school can play a significant role in obtaining parent membership in the association, in planning section programs and projects, and in maintaining parent interest and membership throughout the pupil's span of elementary schooling.

SCHOOL ENLISTMENT OF HOME SUPPORT

Administrators and teachers are frequently concerned regarding parents' possible criticism of the educational program, and even of their making open attacks on the schools. The school workers feel that parental criticism stems chiefly from lack of understanding of the educational program, particularly when changes beyond instruction in the fundamental skills or the conventional subjects are made to keep pace with social change.

Shortcomings of conventional bids for home support. The time-honored means of winning home support are assuredly still useful; but, standing alone, they are far from sufficient. They consist of telling parents about the school products; having parents make visits to the school to view formal class work assemblies, or exhibits of school work; issuing card reports of pupil standings in subjects; and recruiting parents for what often turns out to be perfunctory membership in a parent association. A characteristic of these procedures is that they reveal only end products; parents are not included in the initial planning and active participation in the educative process itself.

Parents should be shareholders in the educational program. The true means of enlisting parent understanding, and consequent support, of the educational program is for the school to make the parents actual partners in the educational process, so that they participate at first hand in planning and initiating needed new procedures and perceive that the times call for extension of the program beyond the three R's. The policy, in short, to win moral and financial support of parents is to have them share in responsibility for the school's program throughout the entire span of the elementary school in the ways de-

scribed in the foregoing paragraphs, with the view that shareholders are usually enthusiastic about the products of the enterprise in which they have invested their constructive efforts, their time, and their money.

CO-OPERATIVE PLANNING FOR PUPIL'S SECONDARY PROGRAM

As the pupil nears the close of his elementary schooling, he and his parents begin to think of his secondary schooling. Pupils, left alone to make the choice of the secondary school they will attend, will be likely to be guided by naive ideas, among which may be a desire to attend the school which the most of his friends, or a particular friend, plan to attend.

Assisting the parents and their son or daughter to select the type of secondary schooling that best meets the individual needs of the pupil is perhaps the last important service that the school can render the home. The school that has actively made the parents continuing partners in its program will here have marked advantages that it can capitalize in the interests of the pupil.

Visiting day for selecting secondary school. The personnel records of the school, including the results of tests, health data, and the activities carried out beyond class time, will provide helpful information. Assuredly special conferences should be held at which the pupil, both parents, the principal, the guidance counselor, and the current teacher consider the basic factors in selecting the kind of secondary schooling that would be most beneficial for the pupil. Many school systems hold a "Visiting Day" for parents of pupils in the final semester or year of their elementary schooling, at which conferences of the type described are held, in order to dramatize the procedure and insure full attendance of parents. For the school with a program of realistic school-home relations such a visiting day would mainly serve to bring together neighbors who had long worked with teachers and consequently would confirm findings regarding the pupil's future school that had for some time been apparent. Schools with such programs will have made the con-

ference at school a regular procedure of each quarter or month instead of an event at the close of the elementary school.

The implications of the programs of general and vocational high schools, as well as trade schools, must be brought home to parents and pupils. In particular, the dangers of too early specialization and the desirability of remaining on the American educational ladder that keeps the way open from kindergarten to junior college must be clearly brought out.

Preparing parents for the pupil's secondary school living. The elementary school will provide parents with information regarding the pupil's developmental characteristics in adolescence and the changes that may be expected both in the pupil's home and community living.

The pupil in the elementary school has been a child; in the secondary school he will be treated as a youth, with all of the drives and motivations his changing status will bring being taken into consideration. Parents must be informed, possibly through a booklet that the elementary school may provide, of such matters as the increased freedom and responsibility that the secondary school will place on the pupil, the need for parents to deal more flexibly at home with the pupil assuming the role of youth, and the increasing interests of the pupil in the extra-class interests of school and community.

Finally, parents and pupils alike should be convinced of the elementary school's continuing interest in the pupil and his home, not only until his adjustment in the secondary school has reached a very satisfactory stage, but whenever, in subsequent years, either the pupil's home or the school can benefit from a renewal of educational association.

SUMMARY

Appropriate relationships of the school with the homes of the pupils begin with the teachers' realization of the parents' educational role. This does not mean that the parent duplicates or replaces the work of the teacher. What must be sensed is that both parents and teachers are working on the same broad

aims for the child. Just as partners in a business firm may each assume different aspects of responsibility for the management of the firm's work, so may teachers and parents assume certain aspects of the child's guidance. *The school should make parents realistic partners in the educative process.* Furthermore, because the school has the professional responsibility for the child's education, *staff members should delineate the educational areas in which the parent can most effectively serve* and designate broad procedures that the parent may use. These areas should lie mainly in the fields of general education, such as health, leisure, character building, and the like, where parents may assume joint responsibility with the teacher. Full responsibility for instruction in technical and skill subjects should be retained by the teacher.

The school should likewise assume responsibility for establishing workable means of contact between school and home. *The pupil should be recognized as the chief medium between school and home* and made an active member of a three-way relationship of parent, teacher, and pupil.

The building and maintenance of associational relationships of parents and teachers *should be based on co-operation in planning and providing pupil guidance in the school's general curriculum.* For this purpose, parent associations should be decentralized into sections such as grade-level groups. Parent associations should be accorded consultative services of school staff members in the leadership their members render in the preschool curriculum and in the projects they undertake with the school for the general improvement of children's family living and learning.

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Evaluating the Educational Program

THE TERM "EVALUATION" REFERS TO A PROCESS by which the values of some undertaking are determined. In some cases the methods are not very difficult to apply because they are tangible; for example, in the case of a retail store, the objectives of distributing goods and making a profit can be determined by the quantity of goods handled and by the amount of profit from their sale. Thus evaluating a store is not a very perplexing problem and can usually be done by accounting procedures without much uncertainty about the methods that are employed.

Similarly, the term "evaluation" can be applied to any social process, but the methods employed and the procedures are often not so simple as those used in buying and selling goods. Fundamentally, however, the term has the same meaning as it does in business, and when it is applied to a school or the program of an elementary school, it means the process by which one finds out how far the objectives of the school program are being realized. The problem in education is more complex for numerous reasons. There is no unanimous agree-

ment upon the fundamental objectives in education, the objectives are often vaguely and indefinitely stated, the methods of obtaining evidence about attaining educational objectives are more difficult and less clear-cut, and the process of summarizing and interpreting the results of evaluation in education is complicated by the fact that different groups are involved—students, teachers, parents, and patrons.

Just as business enterprises devote a portion of their time and energies to accounting procedures to make periodic evaluations of their activities, so must the elementary school continuously appraise its work. The process is a continuous one in which the goals of the institution are frequently reviewed to see if they can be more effectively achieved. Even though the process may be more complex than it is in a business, this fact should not prevent educators and all others interested in the work of a school from making the best possible attack upon the problem of evaluating the work of the school.

PURPOSES OF EVALUATION

It will help anyone interested in determining the place of evaluation in education if consideration is given to the purposes that the process may serve. Too often, today, the purposes most commonly considered are grading, classification, and promotion of pupils; reporting to parents; and reporting to a board of education. This chapter is organized so that a more comprehensive program of evaluating an elementary school can serve a broader range of purposes than those enumerated above.

One of these broader purposes of evaluation is to provide a periodic check that will direct along definite lines the continued improvement of the program of the school. Another purpose of evaluation is to give everyone working with pupils the information that is necessary to provide guidance and counsel for boys and girls in the school. Still another purpose is to secure help in validating the function and goals that the school strives to attain and in determining the program upon which the school operates. A broad program of evaluation can

also provide a sound basis for good public relations to secure an understanding on the part of a community of the program of the school and its effectiveness. Such an evaluation will meet many of the criticisms of the school expressed by parents, taxpayers, and others because they do not know what the school is attempting to do.

Finally a good program of evaluation can provide a sense of security to *members of the school staff, to the pupils, and to their parents* so that they have tangible evidence that the program they are operating is an effective one.

These five broad purposes of evaluation should be considered in addition to such obvious ones as securing evidence regarding the child's acquisition of information, his general rate and comprehension in reading, his ability to write and to spell, and his ability to manipulate numerical quantities. A testing program may give satisfactory evidence concerning these things, but a more fundamental program of evaluation is needed to determine whether the school is doing more than merely teaching the tool subjects and developing competence in the three R's. The computation of per capita pupil costs may be of interest, but it is no indication of how effective a school program may be in bringing about desirable changes in how pupils think, feel, and act. To measure such fundamental outcomes in education, evaluation must go far beyond the usual testing program and cost accounting schemes to which appraisal in education is often limited. Some of these broader purposes in a program of evaluation will be considered in greater detail.

Evaluating to improve the school. When a business enterprise evaluates its program, it determines by its monthly balance sheet which departments have produced the most and which the least amount of profit or loss, and it also finds which products have sold well and which have not. Similarly, a periodic evaluation of the school, if undertaken correctly, should reveal the items of strength in its program which should be continued and also the points where practices and procedures

should be modified. The purpose of evaluating should include some means of finding the methods that are most effective in teaching in a given subject-matter field and which methods are least effective. Through evaluation a school should be able to determine whether one method or another is better in bringing about desirable social relations between pupils and better intercultural relations in the community. It is as important to find how pupils feel and act toward one another as to learn what they know about certain other people. This growth in understanding is as important as their growth in knowledge. If teachers and principals make evaluations in these broader terms, they can soon find those places in the school's program where improvements can be initiated. A program of evaluating a school should always attempt to find the places where improvements can be made both in content and in methods employed.

Guidance improved by evaluation. Sound guidance is a necessary function of an educational program. Every teacher needs to know where every child is making progress and where he is having difficulties. In this connection it is necessary to appraise all the significant aspects of a pupil's accomplishments as well as his mere acquisition of facts and figures. A child needs guidance not only in learning the fundamentals and in acquiring knowledge, but he needs guidance in how to feel about what he is doing and in how to act with reference to what he knows. When a school attempts to evaluate its program in terms of how it guides and counsels its pupils, all phases of the child's life must be considered. Educational guidance is involved; but personal guidance, vocational guidance, and emotional guidance must also be considered. The use of sociograms can help teachers in evaluating how well their pupils are guided in some of the social aspects of school life and how well they are learning to live together. Aptitude tests can prove of value in giving vocational as well as educational guidance. Tests to determine social growth and personality development will assist in providing social and emotional guid-

ance. In short, no program of evaluating the work of an elementary school is comprehensive unless definite efforts are made to include the guidance functions in education and to find the ways and means by which these functions can be improved.

Evaluating to validate goals. The program of a school and its curriculum is usually organized on the basis of a plan developed by the staff of a school; but, in reality, no one knows whether such a plan so conceived will actually work in a particular community. As a result, a school may continue for years to use a poorly organized curriculum because no careful evaluation has been made to check the validity of the hypothesis on which the curriculum is operating. For example, an elementary school may have constructed its curriculum on the basis that pupils learn to read and develop reading habits and skills in a reading class in a way that will enable them to read in arithmetic, history, geography, and other subjects. Experience and careful appraisal have shown that such a belief is rarely valid. Children must learn to read in every field of endeavor in which they attempt to read. Reading directions in a shop manual, reading problems in arithmetic, and reading in history or geography must all be learned functionally. Only a good program of evaluating work in a school will validate the methods and procedures used in every phase of the work of the school. A good educational social worker or counselor cannot provide the guidance needed by children in a school unless all teachers become more or less expert in providing guidance. Personal and social adjustments among pupils in a school cannot be based on the belief that some guidance functionary will eliminate all maladjustments unless the whole program of the school and all those that work in it are making an attack on the problem. Evaluating the work of an elementary school must therefore include within its program some means whereby everything that is done in the school is tested to find whether it is based on a valid assumption.

Evaluation in public relations. Every elementary school must

establish constructive and co-operative relations with the community of which it is a part. A good program of evaluation will help to provide a sound basis for the efforts made to secure good public relations. Evidence must be provided and widely publicized to inform a community about the value of its school's program. Many of the criticisms of the school expressed by the people in a community can be answered and turned to co-operation if there is evidence available regarding what the school is accomplishing. Too often the patrons of a school have no clear-cut idea of what the school is trying to do, they do not understand what is implied by modern education, and they do not know all the phases of life in which a school tries to work. When a school evaluates its program and makes known what it is trying to do and how well it is accomplishing its program, there is an awakened interest on the part of all parents and patrons and there is aroused a willingness on their part to pay the costs of a good school program.

Evaluation to improve public relations should be made in terms of how well a school improves the behavior of its pupils. Parents should be informed in the way the thinking, feeling, and acting of their children are changed by the different parts of the school program. They should be told how well the program provides for understanding and practicing of the principles and forms of the American government, how it improves family living and human relationships, how it helps to develop economic competence and meets vocational responsibilities, how it protects life and health, how it develops skill in using the tools of communication, how it teaches the wholesome use of leisure, and how it helps satisfy the spiritual and aesthetic needs of its pupils. When people get a true picture of the total program of a good elementary school and have evidence to support the school's claim to what it is doing in each phase of its work, there is evidence that evaluation is assisting in establishing good public relations.

Evaluation builds security. Another purpose of evaluation is to give those working in the program of elementary educa-

tion an indication of the effectiveness of their work to give them a feeling of security. The function, program, and objectives of elementary schools today are much broader than formerly, and the staffs of the schools have responsibilities that cover many more aspects of children's lives than was true a generation ago. Many of these increased responsibilities are less tangible than those that teachers faced when schools cared for only the intellectual side of life. As a result parents and teachers may often be in doubt as to whether the school is actually accomplishing its major objectives. Such doubts may result in the school returning to a narrow program of teaching skills and facts that can be easily measured. Often schools pride themselves upon the standings made by their pupils in standardized tests in reading, spelling, and the fundamentals of arithmetic, not realizing that more fundamental values are being neglected. Parents too often feel that the ability of children in spelling, handwriting, and arithmetical computation are the only things that need to be measured to indicate whether the school is meeting its responsibilities. When those who teach or those who are interested in elementary school work emphasize only those procedures that can be easily measured because they want to know that schools are doing a good job; they often neglect the best educational work of the school in the interest of a feeling of security in the work done. For such teachers and parents a more comprehensive program of evaluation can give a check on all aspects of the work of the school that will give the feeling of security that is necessary for continued growth and self-confidence. Everyone, pupils as well as parents and teachers, wants to feel secure in what he does in order to make an educational program effective. When a program of evaluation can provide security in all phases of the school's work, pupils and teachers are not so likely to concentrate on some one or two phases of the work and thereby neglect more important values. Thus a good program of evaluation can give the feeling of security that is necessary to do the best job in elementary education.

PRINCIPLES OF EVALUATION

Evaluation should be made in terms of the goals and functions of an elementary school. The functions of the school and the aims and goals of its program must be clear to all those who are associated with the work of the school. Parents, pupils, teachers, supervisors, principals, and maintenance staff must know its aims and purposes in terms that can be comprehended by all. Whenever goals and aims are developed by a co-operative effort on the part of all those interested, there is more likelihood that they will know them and understand them. Provision must also be made to inform new members of the staff and new patrons in the community of what has been done and of what is being attempted by the school. Whenever evaluation is attempted, it should be done in terms that can be understood by all concerned. The principles should be broad and comprehensive enough to encompass all that must be done in the field of elementary education and yet definite and limited by the levels of understanding of those who make up the community.

Evaluation should be made in terms of the methods and materials used in striving to achieve the aims of the school. Methods and procedures that seem to be directly related to the goals to be achieved should be chosen for use. Such methods and procedures should be used as are in accord with good practice in this field of work, and the materials in use should have a direct relation to the goals to be achieved.

Evaluation should be made in terms of a variety of evidence on the achievement of each goal of the elementary school. Any plan for collecting evidence must include the measurement of attitudes and understandings as well as abilities and skills. Appraisal devices that are used should include records of activities in which pupils participate, questionnaires, checklists, anecdotal records, interviews, reports made by parents, and records made by instruments such as motion pictures and sound recordings. Merely to give the results of standardized tests, written examinations, or subjective opinions of teachers

is no longer sufficient in a modern program for evaluating the work of an elementary school.

Evaluation should be made in terms of the significant changes that are taking place in the pupil. It should not be made on methods of appraising the processes and procedures of the school but rather on the outcomes or results of those processes and procedures. Appraisal must be in terms of the product—that is, the student—and not in terms of the school or its methods. To evaluate a school by using a checklist of approved school practices may be helpful when used from time to time as a tentative technique, but this method can only supplement and not take the place of a careful appraisal of the pupil, the product of the school. A comprehensive evaluation of the development of pupils must be made to be sure that the educational objectives of the elementary school are actually being realized. This means that the school must collect evidence that will indicate how far significant changes are taking place in the pupils enrolled.

STEPS IN EVALUATION

Whenever the elementary school attempts to evaluate its work or certain phases of its program, it will be found of value if certain steps are followed. The steps outlined in this section of this chapter may not fit every case of evaluation, but they are suggestive of the different phases of the work that must be done when one attempts to evaluate. The steps are outlined in the order in which they should be followed. The first of these is to isolate and describe the specific problem.

Nature and scope of the problem. Each attempt to evaluate any of the work done in a school is unique. Children differ in intelligence, in maturity, in their social capital, and in many other ways; consequently, evaluation must take account of the nature of the children whose work is to be appraised. Every problem in evaluation must also take account of the fact that some of the work of the school is concerned with a child's intellectual growth, other work may concern his physical devel-

opment, and still other work will be primarily concerned with the emotional maturity or the social adjustment of children. Furthermore, any attempt at evaluation must be concerned with the community life in which the children of the school find themselves. In some communities the physical needs of children must be a matter of primary concern for the school, in other communities the question of good human relationships is more important, and even the cultural pattern of a neighborhood may need consideration.

Problems in evaluation will also differ with the scope, size, and extent of the area of school work to be covered. Evaluations will differ as to whether the investigator considers what the school attempts to do in a week's work, a month's work, or a semester or year's work. Sometimes a child's whole school life of six or eight years needs consideration. There may be many other factors that must be considered when one attempts to evaluate. One of these is the part to be played by those who attempt to do the appraising. Teachers and school psychologists will be concerned primarily with the way children differ and with the way that children learn in the school. School administrators and school social workers can make contributions concerning the community life and family life of children that may affect the evaluation process. Certainly, parents and patrons can indicate the ways in which they would like to study the program of the school in its effect on the children of the community. If the school employs some consultant to help in evaluation, he will be concerned primarily with the methods to be used in gathering and analyzing data. However, no program of evaluation should be attempted until the problem has been defined in terms of all known factors that need consideration and until the part that each worker can contribute has been canvassed. A failure to define the nature and scope of any evaluation program will result in a great deal of unnecessary and meaningless work and may invalidate the results that will be obtained.

Clarification of values. Whenever one attempts to evaluate,

he must place values on materials, processes, procedures, and results. Consequently, a clear understanding of the values to be sought becomes a necessary second step in evaluation. Those interested in evaluating the work of a school must know what is worth measuring, what has value to the child, the parent, the teacher, or someone else. For example, a precious stone has no value to a baby except as a plaything, or to a savage except as an ornament, whereas it may have great value to many others and for many different reasons. Similarly water is of great immediate value to someone in a desert while of little value to one on the shores of a great fresh water lake. Furthermore, all values are relative depending upon who is making the evaluation. It depends upon what one wants. What the pupil wants in school may not be the same as what the teacher wants, and neither may want what the child's parents want from the school.

The evaluator thus must consider the value different people place on different things because these values will influence conduct. What the pupil wants will influence his conduct in school. Many values are placed on the basis of prejudice; others on intelligence and understanding. Religious beliefs, political and social views, and economic considerations all influence values placed on school work that must in turn influence the conduct and thinking of all concerned in a program of evaluation.

No attempt should be made to evaluate school work without attempting early in the process to clarify the values that are to be measured. In taking this step, pupils will have a part to play because what they consider valuable is of importance. Teachers and school workers will value work, methods, and curriculum offerings from the standpoint of how they contribute to the total growth of the child. Parents and patrons will place other values upon the work of the school. Evaluation procedures must take account of the contributions of all concerned with the work of the school when they try to fix the values to be measured.

Determination of criteria. A logical third step in any program that attempts to evaluate the work of a school is to determine the criteria to be used in measuring results. Whatever criteria are to be used should be understood by all who take part in any program of evaluation. To insure a knowledge and understanding of the means by which school work is to be measured requires that the criteria should be arrived at by considering the contributions of administrators, teachers, pupils, parents, and patrons of the school. General participation by everyone concerned is necessary to get valid and understandable means of measurement.

It is also important to keep in mind that different phases of the work of the school will be measured by different means. Standardized tests are important in evaluating intellectual growth in reading or arithmetical computation and in determining mental skills developed or information gained in school. Anecdotal records and records of participation in school activities or other case work procedures will help measure changes in behavior. Scales to determine social maturity, personality development, or emotional stability help measure other phases of pupil growth. The ways in which a child expresses himself orally or in written work in art, music, or physical activities are also of importance in determining criteria.

Criteria cannot be established unless consideration is given to the differences found in children of the same age or the same children at different ages. Criteria must also be in accord with the nature of the learning process. In this connection it is well to remember that a teacher not only never "learns a child anything" but also actually does not "teach" anything. Children discover things, truths, ways of doing something, and modes of behavior, and all that the teacher does is to guide and stimulate the growth and development of the child. Learning is influenced by the interpersonal relations between children and their peers, teachers, parents, and others; and if it is true learning, it must involve self-direction and self-control from within

aspects of the work of a school and should be a process that continues throughout the school life of every child. No program of evaluation is possible unless sufficient data are at hand.

Analysis of data. After sufficient data have been collected, the next step is to analyze what has been found. Data can be analyzed to determine trends for the school as a whole or to find the amount of growth and development of an individual child. Statistical methods will often help in such an analysis of data. An analysis of data will help to determine trends and is necessary to find the strong and the weak spots in any school program. A careful analysis is always necessary to determine whether the values previously agreed upon are being obtained and to find whether the results of a school's work are in line with its objectives and aims. A good consultant, or an expert in evaluating education, is always a great help in the analysis of the data collected in a school or school system. If none is available, principals and supervisors must assist teachers and parents in studying the results of a school's work. Both teachers and administrators have the responsibility of interpreting results to parents and patrons of a school.

Implementing improvements. It is almost trite to say that the final step in any evaluation program is to reach decisions concerning the work being done. Such decisions should be made in view of the findings. Suggestions should be welcomed from all concerned so that changes can be made to improve the work of the school. Teachers and administrators must determine what things can be done first. In other words, the changes necessary to implement improvements must be decided upon and then carried out. Some of these changes will involve the content of the curriculum, others will be concerned with changes in methods of teaching, and others may involve the materials of instruction or even changes in building and classrooms. It is important to note that, unless every evaluation made does not result in improvement in the work of education, it is almost valueless.

DIFFICULTIES IN EVALUATION

Lack of comprehensiveness. Whenever an elementary school attempts a program of evaluating its effectiveness, certain difficulties will be encountered. The most common defect of such programs is their lack of comprehensiveness. The programs too often provide evidence on only one or two phases of the school program and do not give a complete picture of all the important changes in pupils that a school seeks to make. Testing programs, for example, may give evidence regarding the acquisition of knowledge, the rate and comprehension of reading, or the ability to solve arithmetical problems; but they may present little evidence about the pupil's development of effective ways of thinking, the acquisition of desirable social attitudes, the development of good work habits, the deepening of his appreciations, the increase in his social sensitivity, or the moral and spiritual progress he has made. It is well known that one cannot assume that, because a school does a good job on certain qualities, it is equally effective in attaining other of the school's objectives. Evaluation must be comprehensive to be effective in measuring the work of a modern elementary school.

Lack of variety of techniques. Another difficulty in developing a program of evaluation is the failure to include in a systematic plan a variety of techniques that can be used to appraise the changes taking place in pupils. Case histories as well as written examinations should be employed. Anecdotal records and results of interviews with pupils and parents should be used in addition to standardized objective tests. The records of the activities in which pupils engage as well as the impressions made on teachers are valuable. Checklists, questionnaires, and products made by the pupils all provide additional information that can be employed to add variety to the techniques used in appraisal.

Use of a single measure. A further difficulty is encountered whenever the school attempts to summarize the results of an evaluation program in terms of a single grade. Such a procedure does not indicate where strengths and weaknesses of in-

dividual pupils are, and cannot indicate the points at which the school program should be improved. Plans must be developed for summarizing data that will be more analytical; and these summaries must be expressed in terms that will be more easily understood by pupils, parents, and patrons of the school. Regular conferences between parents and teachers about each pupil, home visits by teachers, and school visits by parents will help in evaluating the work of the school.

EVALUATING BASIC NEEDS

Schools have traditionally been concerned with the success and failure of their pupils in acquiring scholastic skills and knowledge, but good schools today are equally interested in striving to help each child develop a healthy, adjustable personality. The school therefore must evaluate how well it satisfies the basic human needs that promote the development of a healthy personality.

Love and affection. Every child has the need for affection and a feeling of belonging. In evaluating a school, provision must be made to determine whether teachers are able to accept every child and give him a feeling of belonging. It must be determined whether such classroom procedures are used that will help the child who seems to lack friends in the group. The curriculum should be measured in terms of whether or not it helps children to understand and appreciate people of various races, religions, nationalities, and different social classes. The school administration should be judged by whether, through the services of school social workers, counselors, and psychologists, it provides assistance to parents and teachers who need help in giving pupils feelings of belonging.

Sense of achievement. Every child has a need for a realization of achievement and an opportunity for creative expression. Evaluation of a school must therefore provide the means of determining whether every child is in a learning situation where he can succeed and gain some satisfaction. Teachers must be appraised on what they are doing to encourage pupils

who feel defeated and have given up trying. Classroom procedures should be judged on the basis of whether they take into account that all children do not learn the same things at the same rate or even the same things at the same age. A curriculum should be measured by the provisions it makes for each pupil to express his own individuality because pupils vary widely in interests and abilities. The administration of a school must be evaluated by the policy it builds in respect to those pupils who are not achieving the expected standards of performances.

Need for making decisions. Every child likes to have some part in deciding what his activities are to be, in making his own decisions, and in solving his own problems. Children want to make choices and to make their opinions count; they want to find answers rather than to be told. A school therefore must be evaluated by the extent to which teachers give pupils a chance for making choices rather than merely telling them what to do. The work of classrooms will be judged by the opportunity it offers pupils to plan and to make decisions, and the curriculum should provide for group discussion as well as independent projects. The school administrator will be measured by how he handles a conflict between pupil opinion and the wishes of teachers.

Freedom from fear. Every child needs freedom from fear and feelings of guilt. Fear at times has a protective function, but excessive timidity can interfere with the growth of a healthy personality. Some children have been threatened and reproached so much that they are afraid of teachers. Sometimes they have been made to feel so guilty about their behavior that they come to feel that they are "bad" and they lose confidence in themselves. Evaluation must provide for determining whether teachers can reject a child's undesirable behavior while making it clear that they are not rejecting the child himself. It is important to find out how undesirable behavior is dealt with in the classroom, and whether or not an attempt is made to find out what causes it. The curriculum should also

provide for helping pupils to understand their fears and feelings of guilt.

Need for discipline. Every child has a need to experience both discipline and freedom. The school must be appraised by how well it teaches the constructive use of freedom and how well it develops a sense of responsibility and a capacity for self-discipline. Teachers are judged by the methods they use to transform imposed discipline into self-discipline, the classroom procedures by the way pupils are allowed freedom at various grade levels, the curriculum by whether it provides areas in which students exercise self-control, and the administration by whether it provides pupils with opportunities to learn from experience in student government.

Understanding the social environment. Every child needs to understand the social environment, and children generally are eager to understand what is going on around them in the world. Teachers can evaluate their work by what they do to develop in their pupils an understanding of society and by the classroom procedures they use to explain how things work, what people do, and how they live in the society of a community, city, state, nation, and world.

Economic needs. Every child has economic needs and many children suffer from unmet economic needs. They may be underprivileged, lack medical and dental care, have to wear poor clothes, be unable to buy books and other supplies, and suffer from the economic insecurity of their homes. The school will be judged by the means it uses to discover such pupils, how its classroom procedures avoid embarrassment of needy pupils, how the curriculum operates when hidden school costs cannot be met, and by what the school administration does about such problem cases.

EVALUATING THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Thus far, the problem of evaluation has been considered from its general application to the work of the school. However, the elementary school has definite responsibilities in cer-

tain areas dealing with specific curriculum offerings. Every child needs to learn to use the tools of communication, to do quantitative thinking, to live with others, to understand the scientific age, to get pleasure from the arts, and to develop moral and spiritual values. Evaluation procedures should be applied to these areas so that teachers, pupils, and parents may know how well the school is functioning in what is more specifically considered the school program.

Communication. Every one, particularly in a democracy, needs to know how to communicate with others in many ways. It is impossible to comprehend how one could live without the means of communication. Communication implies the ability to get thoughts and ideas from the printed or written word and to convey ideas and thoughts by written words. It also means that one must be able to convey thoughts and ideas by spoken language and to receive them by listening to the speech of someone else. Communication requires the use of language, by means of which individuals in our society are able to communicate with contemporaries and also with all the ideas and lives of men and women who have lived before and still live on the pages of history. Educators generally consider this phase of school work as work in the language arts, which includes expressive communication, oral and written expression, and receptive communication, reading, and listening. Formerly, the school program provided separate work in reading, spelling, handwriting, and oral and written expression including grammar. These subjects were more or less mechanically taught. Today the emphasis is placed on the functional meanings of reading, talking, listening, and writing. Schools now try to emphasize the function of language in dealing with the practical life situations of the child.

Evaluation therefore must provide means of determining whether children are learning to recognize the functional values of the language arts and whether they are developing those skills necessary to meaningful and accurate communication. Evaluation must also determine whether children are

becoming aware of the personal and social values of language. Schools must be sure that children comprehend that language is more than mere memorization of abstract words and that the symbols used stand for objects and events that have meaning to them and to others. Language must also be used in personality development by getting children to increase their vocabularies in order to extend the conception they have of life around them.

Teachers and principals, when evaluating their reading program, should measure it not only with the usual testing devices but also by finding out whether children are having experiences that will help to develop a meaningful vocabulary. An attempt should be made to determine whether children are learning to read critically the materials they encounter in newspapers, magazines, and circulars. In short, evaluation of reading should determine children's understanding of the nature and function of the process, the social significance of what is read, and the children's interests and tastes in reading.

In a somewhat similar fashion, the power of oral expression and the art of listening developed by the children in a school need appraisal. Writing is more difficult than the other language arts, requires more study, and is harder to evaluate. It involves penmanship and spelling as well as language usage. Here, as in reading, the writing situations should be closely related to the life needs of the children. Evaluation in writing should include some measure of how well children can use written communication in all the curriculum areas without limiting it to the language class.

No final appraisal of the art of communication and of the use of language can be made without determining the changes that it causes individual children to make in their social relationships with other children, their parents, and teachers.

Quantitative thinking. Everyone makes use of applied mathematics, and effective citizenship requires a knowledge of numbers. No one can run a household, make a tax return, or engage in any business transaction without using quantitative

concepts and having some skill and accuracy in arithmetical computation. In the past, arithmetic was usually taught by imposing extrinsic motivation upon children to cause them to memorize the basic number facts and to gain speed in computing abstract problems. Work was characterized by a great deal of drill in each of the fundamental operations to insure accuracy and speed. Today, schools design the program of classroom activities to help children gain a more meaningful interpretation of arithmetic as a means of expressing ideas of quantity and the relationship that exists between numbers. Children now are taught the meanings involved in each of the fundamental operations and develop skill by using the arithmetical processes in solving practical problems of interest to them. This newer concept in teaching quantitative understandings is dependent upon the teachers' own ability to understand them. A program of evaluation in elementary mathematics must therefore first appraise the abilities and understandings of those who teach it. Such appraisals can be made by the teachers themselves, and they can do it more easily under the guidance of skilled supervisors.

An evaluation must also be made of whether the work in arithmetic results in desired outcomes. A necessary first step in evaluating the process is for the teachers of a school to agree on the learnings they expect children to acquire, and upon the procedures that they intend to use in appraising a child's understanding of the outcomes. Arithmetical meanings should be evaluated in each operation in arithmetic, in counting, in addition, in subtraction, in multiplication, in division, in fractions, in decimals, and in percentage.

The instruments frequently used by teachers to measure a child's attainment in arithmetic include achievement tests, diagnostic tests, teacher-child conferences, and written work. Problem solving must be evaluated not only in terms of the computations involved but also on the basis of whether children are able to read the problem and understand what is known and what answers are to be sought.

Evaluation procedures used should help teachers to extend their knowledge of quantitative thinking and help them in giving better instructional guidance. If evaluation in elementary mathematics can be placed on a co-operative basis by teachers and pupils, it will help to locate and eliminate the cause of faulty learnings.

Group living. Social studies in the elementary school are concerned with the material and social heritage of people. In order to be able to understand the present age, a knowledge of geography and history is necessary. However, a good modern program of social studies implies that children should get more than factual information and also get some understanding of and skill in living together. Modern schools try to do more than merely pass on the cultural heritage of the race when they help children to acquire a social education and try to develop socially adequate, wholesome personalities. Children need to know the facts of geography, history, and civics; but they also need to learn how people can live together in a democratic society and they need practice in learning the ways of democratic living. Any program of evaluation must take into account these newer concepts in the program of social studies.

Principals and teachers can evaluate the school's program in group living by checking whether children have an opportunity to get first-hand experience in living and working together in the school. The program in social studies should be appraised by ascertaining whether or not pupils respect the rights and opinions of others, by noting whether or not pupils assume social responsibilities, and by finding whether or not children act in accord with democratic principles.

By using anecdotal records, checklists, results of interviews, and records of pupil participation, teachers can note whether children are able to make intelligent adjustments, get along with other members of the family and the school, and understand the interdependence of peoples and groups.

In this part of the school's program, evaluation should help a school staff in clarifying issues, developing curriculum con-

tent, and devising ways and means of judging a pupil's progress in good group living.

Scientific development. Most of modern life is based upon the scientific development of the past century. Children live in a scientific age. Long before they enter school, they have used electrical devices, used modern means of transportation, heard the radio, and viewed a television program. Too often in the past, elementary science was merely a diluted high school or college course or consisted of supplementary reading materials in science. Even the nature study approach to science was unsound because it was filled with imaginative figures like Jack Frost, Animal Friends who talked, and a personification of nature and its forces. Much of the earlier work in science was done on an abstract level. Today children are introduced to the methodology and content of science in the primary grades, and the experiences of children are utilized to acquire scientific information on all grade levels. Instead of an abstract subject, science is taught today by introducing children to concrete scientific wonders which are a part of each child's immediate surroundings. The rain or snow storm, the electric light, the sunset, the growing plant, the fish in the school's aquarium, and the shadows cast in the schoolroom are all used in teaching elementary science.

The school's work in science must be appraised by whether or not the teachers use this newer approach in their work in science. Principals and others can note whether teachers use concrete illustrations, whether they have the children keep a weather calendar and make temperature records, whether they have the children care for pets, and whether they study how the toys work.

In evaluating science work, it is important to note whether the children are getting more than scientific facts and figures. Unless children are learning to think critically, to suspend judgment, and to generalize their experience, the work in science is not making its full contribution to the development of children for life in this scientific age.

The arts and other special subjects. In this area of the work of an elementary school are included the work in art, music, shops, library, auditorium, and gymnasium. Evaluation is more complicated because much of the emphasis must be placed on the evaluation of policy rather than the content in the special subjects. Too often the work in the special fields is organized separately and distinctly from the rest of the curriculum, and evaluation must deal with the problem of making them an integral part of school living.

Evaluation must also concern itself with the development of appreciations as well as understandings and skills. This is particularly true in the field of art, music, library, and auditorium work. The pupil's personal enjoyment must be considered as well as the recreational value that the activity may have for the child.

The program of evaluation must take note of the fact that in the arts and other special subjects teachers and children will initiate and direct most of the learning experience co-operatively, that constructive freedom must be encouraged, that a creative approach should be used, that subject matter should only be used functionally, and that little drill or practice should be employed.

The arts and special subjects can be evaluated best if they are an integral part of the elementary school program, if the work is scheduled upon flexible time allotments, if supplies and equipment are readily available, if sufficient space is provided, and if special teachers of art and music do their supervision through their participation in the activities.

This area of the elementary school program has definite values for meeting the needs of many children, and it should be appraised on the basis of its contribution to the development of a well-rounded, wholesome personality in the growth of every child.

Moral and spiritual values. Every child lives not only in a physical and material world but also in a moral and spiritual realm. The rules and regulations that govern life in its moral

and spiritual aspects operate just as inexorably as do those that operate in the physical universe. Therefore, the school program must be evaluated on the basis of its contribution to the moral and spiritual growth of children. Every part of the school program can make a contribution to children's understandings of what is right or wrong, what is good or bad, what is desirable or undesirable behavior.

A school can be judged by the type of citizenship the children practice in school, by how they feel concern for others, and by how they react to situations that require moral as well as physical courage. Schools must be appraised by how well they teach that religion has been and still is an important element of American life, that individuals must be judged by the same moral standards, that the school should be friendly toward the religious beliefs of all pupils, that actions should be based on tolerance and not blind prejudice, and that moral responsibility and self-discipline are marks of maturity.

If education is defined as a process by which the behavior of children is changed so that they will think, feel, and act differently and in a better way than they did before, the importance of developing moral and spiritual values becomes more readily apparent. Evaluation must therefore take account of how children grow in this phase of their development if the total program of the school is to be appraised.

EVALUATION ANSWERS QUESTIONS

Work in elementary schools is complicated by many questions as to what should be taught, how it should be taught, what form of school organization should be used, what course of study should be offered, what form of instruction should be used, what social trends should be emphasized, and many similar questions. All of these questions are closely related, and many are but expressions of differences between the traditional elementary school of the past and the modern school of today. Often the point at issue is only one of the meaning of words. A good program of evaluation will help resolve many of these

questions at issue in the work of any school. Evaluation will at least help clarify the thinking of those who are puzzled in trying to find solutions.

Spirit of the school. The school is often confronted with the question of whether its administration should be democratic or autocratic in spirit. The opponents of democratic control point out that democratic processes are slow and that teachers and other workers lack the time and ability necessary for taking a part in the successful administration of a school. On the other hand, those favoring democracy in administration can point out that, if each member of a staff has a part in developing policies and procedures, the participants will feel more personal responsibility for carrying out what has been agreed upon. Furthermore, morale and *esprit de corps* are enhanced, and work is improved as a result.

The question of the type of control in a school is not only one involving administrators but also a question of the type of control teachers exercise in a classroom. If pupils can have a share in the organization and administration of the classroom, they, too, can profit by the fact of their participation. Of course the effort of securing pupil participation may make the process slower and seemingly less efficient than the more familiar type of teacher control.

Evaluation can help both the teacher and the administrator in resolving the issue of what type of control shall be used in a school and help establish the spirit of the organization. It certainly is important for all educators to learn at first hand whether activities should be directed from without or self-directed from within, and to find out which form of control is, in the long run, the more efficient in developing children.

Form of school organization. Some schools use a departmental organization; others nondepartmentalized classrooms. Sometimes the issue is defined as the difference between teaching children in a nondepartmentalized classroom or teaching subjects in a departmentalized program. Each form of organization has proponents who can point to advantages of their favorite

plan for organizing a school. Certain schemes of organization have been advocated because they are more efficient in the use of a school plant, others because they develop co-operative group efforts on the part of pupils, and still others because they encourage individualized learning. Each scheme has some merit, and every school must determine on the basis of a good program of evaluation the plan that best meets the needs of its pupils and its community.

Closely allied to questions concerning the organization of a school is the question of the age at which children may enter school. Some parents want their children to enter school at an earlier age than other parents desire. A good study of entrance age, taking into account the mental and physical maturity of children, as well as the cultural pattern and background of the community, can help solve this problem. In evaluating this question, the school authorities should consider the contribution that the parents and citizens of a community can make toward its solution.

In evaluating the form of organization of any school, the principal and teachers must first set up the criteria for appraising the worth of the organization. Among these criteria, the following are but a few that must be considered. Is the organization consistent with what is known about the learning process? Does the organization facilitate child development? Will the organization strengthen the mental, physical, and emotional health of children? Will the organization meet the individual needs of all the children who differ even slightly from their fellows? Will it help build the morale of the teachers and the pupils? Will it improve the efficiency of the school in both administration and teaching? Will it fit the children for active participation in home, school, and community life?

Insofar as an evaluation program carried on by teachers and principal can find answers to the problems of organization, it will help to improve the work of a school even though it may not result in radical changes in the operation of the institution.

Nature of the curriculum. The question is often raised

whether the course of study, the time allotments, and other features of the curriculum should be prescribed or flexible. Similarly, the materials of instruction are sometimes prescribed by the administration and at other times selected by individual teachers. Sometimes adopted textbooks must be used; at other times the teachers may use a wide variety of books. These questions are often corollaries to the question of the spirit of the school. Arguments can be given for each plan suggested above. Some schemes work well in some schools, and other schemes, equally well in other schools. No categorical answers can be given that will fit all situations. Consequently the workers in any given school can find answers only by evaluating the plans for their particular situation. This is another area in which evaluation can help resolve controversial issues.

Methods of instruction. Probably no area of school work has so many questions raised as does that of the methods to be employed by teachers in classrooms. There are those who say that the school should provide similar experiences for all boys and girls; and others who believe that, because each child is unique, the school must be adjusted to meet the individual needs of each pupil. Some schools group children on ability levels so that the instruction can fit the needs of all in a group more effectively; other schools believe that each group should be heterogeneously formed with reference to ability in order to teach children how to work and play in a more lifelike situation. Many schemes for individualized learning have been developed, some so highly individualized that each child practically goes alone in many fields of work. The merits of group instruction are advocated by those who do not believe in extreme individual plans. What methods are to be employed in a given situation can be determined only on the basis of a program of evaluation and appraisal. It may be found that some teachers can work more effectively if they use a certain method whereas other teachers will need to use some other method. Certainly principals and supervisors have the responsibility of

helping teachers to evaluate their methods in terms of how they can best serve the interests of their pupils.

Education for present or future living. Another issue often raised is whether the offerings of the school should be selected to meet the future needs of children when they become adults or whether the curriculum should concern itself with helping children in their present environment. Those who favor the first alternative believe that schools should be primarily institutions to prepare for life whereas the others believe that school is life and that the best preparation for the future is to live each year as adequately and fruitfully as possible.

A similar issue is that of whether the school should be primarily concerned with the cultural heritage of the race or whether it should be concerned with an active learning of the lively and present problems facing children.

Such issues can be clarified if the school will attempt a broad and comprehensive program of evaluation. Principals and teachers should direct the program, but in these fundamental issues the advice and contributions of parents and patrons should be sought and considered.

The question of indoctrination. The school can be conceived of as an institution to maintain the *status quo*; it may be thought of as an agency to bring about revolutionary social changes; or it may be thought of as an instrument to build a self-repairing society. These three conceptions of the function of the school are closely allied to the questions raised above in regard to whether education should be directed toward present or future living. The question is concerned with the role of the school in what is sometimes called social reconstruction. The question also involves the teaching of many controversial issues in certain parts of the school program. Too often in discussions about the part that schools should play, there is generated more heat than light.

A good program of evaluation can help a community in clarifying this issue and in arriving at an acceptable solution for the problem. At least study by teachers, administrators, and cit-

izens of what they want the schools to do will result in better thinking about the program of the school, as well as awaken interest on the part of citizens generally in the education of their boys and girls.

It must be pointed out that although good evaluation will help answer the controversial questions raised in this section, it will not always be able to settle the issue. However, the study of such questions will help improve the work of the school, and will advance the professional growth of those who take part in studying controversial questions. For this reason a program of evaluation should be a co-operative undertaking by pupils, teachers, administrators, and the citizens of a community. Moreover, the questions raised above are a typical, although only a partial, list of many controversial issues encountered in the operation of every school. The answers to these questions that will be found by evaluating the merits of different methods, different forms of school organization, and different types of curricula will probably differ in different communities, in different schools, and even in different classrooms in the same school. This may be perfectly logical because what may work best in one situation will not work in some other place. The point is that evaluation will help find the right answers for each situation where a comprehensive program of evaluation is tried, and it will fulfill many of the purposes of an evaluation program enumerated earlier in the chapter.

EVALUATION IS CONTINUOUS

Evaluation is often undertaken as a part of a school survey made by an agency from without the school system. At other times the survey may be made by those from within the school or school system with or without the help of an outside consultant. Too often the surveys made in this way are sporadic and infrequent attempts at evaluation. Although they have their value, they are never as effective as a continuous program of evaluation. Every elementary school should be continuously engaged in studying its own program, in measuring its results

from month to month, and in appraising its own effectiveness. Evaluation is more than a periodic or sporadic function of education; it is a continuing process that helps to guide all those working in the school on a day to day basis.

Good procedures in evaluation can help keep the school program directed toward the total growth of children and not permit the school to direct its efforts merely upon academic achievement. Good evaluation can help provide a balanced educational program resulting in continuous rather than saltatory growth of pupils. It can help in promoting good individual classroom instruction and result in constant curriculum revision and improvement. To take part in a program of evaluation usually advances the personal and professional growth of all members of the school staff and can be used as an excellent in-service training device.

Evaluation should involve the co-operation of parents and patrons as well as teachers, other workers, and administrators. Because the purpose of evaluation is to improve the educational work of the school and to make and keep it more efficient, everyone working in an elementary school should strive to develop new techniques, records, and methods of reporting upon the work of the school. A good program of evaluation should show clearly the work being done, how well it is done, and how it can be improved. Reports of evaluation studies should be so clearly presented that they will be even more readily understood by the constituency of a school than is the balance sheet of some business enterprise.

SUMMARY

Evaluation is a process of determining the assets and liabilities of any undertaking. When the term evaluation is applied to any social process, such as that of education, the methods employed and the procedures used will be more complicated and more difficult to apply than in the case of evaluating a simple business enterprise where the amount of profit and loss gives a simple measurement of success or failure.

Formerly, evaluation was undertaken as a means of grading, classifying, and promoting pupils; of reporting to parents; or of accounting for school expenditures to a board of education. Today a more comprehensive program of evaluating an elementary school will provide means of directing the improvement of the school, will supply information to be used in guidance, will help validate the school's objectives, will provide materials for good public relations, and will give a feeling of security to those who work in the school, in addition to measuring a child's acquisition of information and skills.

Evaluations should be made in terms of the functions and goals of the school, the methods and materials used in terms of a wide variety of evidence collected, and the significant changes taking place in the child.

There are several distinct steps that must be taken in every program of evaluation. First, the specific problem must be isolated, and its nature and scope defined. Then the values must be clarified and criteria determined for measuring the results. The next step is to collect data and to analyze it in such a way that improvements in the work of the school can be implemented.

Schools usually have difficulties in evaluating their work because the program of evaluation lacks comprehensiveness, inappropriate techniques are used, and the results are summarized in some single measure. *No school can evaluate its program unless it measures its attempts to meet the basic needs of all children as well as their successes and failures to acquire academic knowledge and skills.*

In making a comprehensive evaluation of any school program, particular attention should be given to how well and how fully the pupils learn to use the tools of communication, do quantitative thinking, live with others, understand the scientific world, get pleasure from music and the arts, and develop normal and spiritual values. In each of these fields, much more is involved than acquiring knowledge and skill because

each field must be considered from the standpoint of what it does to develop all aspects of the child's personality.

Evaluation in education can help find answers to many controversial questions facing teachers and other school workers. Although these answers may not be answered in terms to fit all situations, they will help determine educational issues *for the particular situation in which the problem was studied. At least evaluation will help clarify issues.*

Evaluation in education should be a co-operative undertaking. Citizens, parents, pupils, teachers, and school administrators all have a part to play in the process. A school should be evaluated continuously, not just sporadically as some crisis arises. Only as citizens generally learn through a comprehensive program of evaluation about all phases of school work and learn how well the job is being done will they continue to support the school's program adequately.

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The Emerging Elementary School

THERE IS A FUNDAMENTAL NEED FOR PRINCIPALS and teachers at appropriate intervals to consider the trends of *theory* and *practice* on which they have been basing their work and, not only to take stock of the elementary school that is taking root as a result of their planning and action today, but also to envision the elementary school that is emerging to serve the needs of the boys and girls of tomorrow. Most of the basic things—those founded on established principles—will live, but there are powerful forces in contemporary living and technical developments in learning that will profoundly affect the educative process. It is the purpose of this final chapter to examine certain of these forces and developments and to forecast the elementary school that will result when they merge and bring their maturing impact to bear on the educational program.

SCHOOL A HUMAN RELATIONS CENTER

A distinctive feature of the emerging elementary school is its role in building human relationships. Though tensions and other serious problems connected with differences in race, re-

ligion, or economic status seldom, if ever, have their origin in elementary school living. people nevertheless look upon the school as the outstanding agency not only for the preachment, but also for the practice of *equality of opportunity*. The elementary school has this added advantage respecting potentialities as a human relations center; namely, that it is at once the parents' first contact with the educational system and also, because of the child's dependence, their closest and most intimate contact with the school. Still further, the elementary school, with its relatively small attendance district, has more of the factor or element of neighborliness among its patrons than any other structural unit of the school system.

Human relations a major area of living and learning. The curriculum committee of the rising elementary school is certain to include the development of human relations as a major function of living. This will serve to make the area a matter of concern throughout the various levels of the school's educational program.

Program of human relations to begin in classroom. In initiating its program of human relations, the elementary school staff will devote particular attention to relations within the classroom: first, relations of teacher to pupils, and second, of pupils to pupils. This will mean a greatly changed concept in the teacher toward children's welfare instead of subject matter as the main focus. It will also effect a virtual transformation in the procedure of the classroom in that the atmosphere will be co-operative and democratic as contrasted with a teacher-centered atmosphere. Though a sociograph may not be constructed for each class as a regular procedure, its principles will be understood and practiced by each teacher.

Faculty committee for integrated program of human relations. Both for insuring the practice of human relations in the staff, principals with teachers and teachers with other teachers, and also for insuring that an integrated agenda for building human relationships pervades living and learning in all reaches and levels of the school world, a committee of staff members

will usually be organized for planning and action in this area. This staff will be authorized to obtain the counsel or criticism of representatives of such groups in the school as the custodial group, the lunchroom corps, and the pupil body for the improvement of human relations practices. The committee should develop criteria to insure harmonious relationships between members of racial or religious groups, between individuals, and *between board members. It should determine limits in social intercourse beyond which the individual, in the interests of his freedom to select his intimate friends and his right to privacy, cannot reasonably be expected to go. It should further stress the responsibilities as well as the rights of members of minority groups, with the principle that equality of opportunity, not special privileges, is all that any individual should expect.*

Human relations not a specialized type of education. Guiding pupils in appropriate human relationships will not call for highly specialized training nor for use of specialized techniques in the classroom, regardless of the pressure that will be brought on school authorities so to act. It is simply the application of the principles of American democracy, such as equality of opportunity and of the teachings of the great religions, in the daily living of pupils and staff members. The application of these principles will be implemented through learning units in such subjects as social studies, language arts, science, art, physical education, and music; through the extra-class activities of the school; and through the leadership and example of teachers and pupil leaders.

Racial, religious, and ethical group-differences or strengths not to be stressed. The ideal of wholesome human relations is not advanced by placing emphasis on minority groups as such. Instead stress is laid on the positive advantages of all working and living together. Such a matter as having days or weeks set aside to emphasize the importance of various nationality groups or certain ideals connected with human relations is questionable in the extreme. So, too, is the practice of stressing scientific

information to prove that one racial or religious group is as strong as others. The staff members should be color-blind and religion-blind in all phases of human relations instruction and practice. All should work together "naturally."

Elementary school to be focus for neighborhood unity and good will. Principal and teachers, working with parents and community leaders, can do much to implement harmonious relations between neighborhood factions and groups. Such groups frequently bring separate pressures to bear on the school, each striving to have its special ideas or projects adopted and used by the school. By encouraging leaders to organize a neighborhood council to co-ordinate the policies of the groups and facilitating the use of the school as a meeting place, the school can eliminate many of the pressures and often even get the groups to unite on a program of active and helpful participation in the school's educational projects.

Sometimes a project arising in connection with the school may be the surest means of bringing neighborhood harmony. An example of this occurred in the elementary school of a large city. To this school was assigned a principal who, in the view of some neighborhood groups, was biased against a minority group in the school. These groups appealed to the director of school personnel of the school system to cancel the assignment of the principal at the same time that other groups voiced approval of the appointment. At a meeting of group leaders in the office of the personnel director, it was agreed that all community groups would join in a welcome to the principal, assuring him of their confidence in his fairness and their support of his efforts. The groups thus provided a pattern of ceasing to compete with each other and of joining forces in a worthy human-relations enterprise.

Pupils learn to live successfully in larger communities by living successfully in their own. The only way for pupils to learn to live peaceably and democratically in the world community or in any of its divisions is to live successfully in their own community. The process, as has been described, begins

with the school world itself and is extended with the co-operative guidance of parents and lay citizens into the homes and school community. Comparisons can be drawn between the study of school and community living and the living of people in other lands in the intermediate grades and the study of effects of industrial, political, and social forces in the upper grades. The study of effects of national and world movements can be understood best in the light of first-hand study of forces affecting living in school and community. The important things of living in the local community are usable beyond its boundaries.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PROGRAM TO HAVE COMMUNITY FOCUS

Not only in stressing human relations, but also in all other of its important functions, the elementary school that is currently unfolding has a distinct community focus. It will be life-centered, which means that it will deal with the improvement of ways in which pupils live in school, home, and neighborhood.

The school world as pupils' own community. A characteristic of the future elementary school will be the improved use of its own world as a laboratory of living and learning. Teachers will have to come to the realization that the school itself, because it is a place where children live for a large share of their time and where the main focus of their activity and interest outside of the home lies, is a children's world, a community in the truest sense. Teachers should further realize that this community of the children is under their control and that consequently it may be made sufficiently flexible for the shaping of ideal learning situations in terms of community living.

The activities that regularly arise in the school will be analyzed so that their potentialities may be regularly utilized as learning situations. Even serious problems, such as difficulties in pupil conduct or classwork, will be regarded not wholly as hardships but in a large measure as profitable learning situations. The problems will be related to the appropriate classroom; for example, problems in the corridors will be dealt with

by the social-studies teacher either in an individual conference with the pupil or in discussion and improved action with a class group. In like manner, inattention in assembly programs might be made a learning situation in English classes under the topic of "listening." The problem will be examined objectively, and decisions will be made in the light of open-minded discussion and the application of related principles.

Much more important and frequent than conduct problems as learning opportunities will be the varied, colorful, and successful undertakings, individual or group, that continuously take place throughout the school. These will originate in class, committee, and club. They will be positive in nature and will include projects as varied as conducting a council meeting, raising a litter of animals, putting out an English-class newspaper, making a model airplane, or putting on an assembly playlet. In all such activities, such as electing pupil civic association officers, pupils will recognize the nature and importance of co-operation, interdependence, initiative, and responsibility. In scope these will be individual, small-group, whole-class, grade-level, and total-school enterprises. They will be the means by which pupils will participate responsibly in the planning and action of their own community, the school.

Preschool curriculum initiates a lasting school-home partnership. The elementary school of tomorrow will be the beneficiary of the current trend in closer relationships with the home. The foundational factor will be the preschool curriculum,¹ in which the parents guide the living and learning activities of preschool children with the consultative assistance of the elementary school staff. This curriculum, expressed in terms of major areas of living, will not only assist parents in understanding the purposes of general education, but it will also implement the devising of techniques by which parents can continue to participate in the educative process after the pupil enters school.

¹ Paul R. Pierce, "Cooperative Curriculum Making in Chicago Public Schools," *Educational Forum*, XVI (May, 1952), 459-67.

for partnership with one another and with adults in bettering the environment and situations in which they learn. It gives them habits of tolerance and co-operation that extend into their attitudes toward people of neighboring and distant lands. Because the school use of the neighborhood is guided mainly by teachers and neighbors—people living together—it develops, through the guidance itself, common understandings and intimate relationships between those giving and those receiving guidance. The fact that the curriculum is to be custom-made to fit the needs of the learners is an element of democratic education also provided by the use of the local community.

Possibly the most potent factor in the use of the community as a learning laboratory is that it capitalizes the human resources in the form of parents and other citizens.

Pupils to improve, as well as use, the community. Pupils are not only to use the community to obtain insights and understandings of community living factors and forces; they are to be guided to engage in making realistic uses of their understandings by striving to improve their community and so to improve the opportunities for enriched and successful living of their young friends, their own family members, and their adult neighbors. It means developing in the early lives of children a sense of their responsibility toward the community for the opportunities the community is providing them in free schooling, recreation, and family security.

Pupils are also to be guided to realize their obligations in types of service and leadership that can be extended naturally into their adult living. Pupils are initiated into membership in worth-while child and youth community organizations during early years of school and are guided to assume increasingly mature roles in neighborhood service as they proceed through their schooling.

School guides learning throughout vacation period. The emerging elementary school neglects neither the responsibility nor the opportunity for continuing its guidance of learning, with the co-operative assistance of parents and community

leaders, during vacation periods. For this purpose it provides individual charts or logs by which the teacher and parent can assist the pupil in planning his vacation opportunities, booklets of information on ways and places for obtaining worth-while vacation experiences, and, by making teaching schedules flexible, teacher supervisory services to the homes. The school relates the learning experiences of the summer period to the classwork of the pupil during the regular school year.

SCHOOL AS A NEIGHBORHOOD CENTER BUILDS HUMAN RELATIONS

The elementary school that is unfolding realizes on the investment made in it by the community through using its plant and equipment for evenings, week ends, and summer recesses as a center for neighborhood activity. This is true whether the school is located in a congested city district or in the broad stretches of a rural setting.

Economical considerations alone indicate the need for use of the school plant in an extended day that lasts fifteen hours *instead of a mere five hours and as a center of recreational and avocational interests* for both young and old. The interests that children develop in their leisure hours of after school, Saturdays, Sundays, and vacations are guided in the new school *through its services as a community center*. The children are habituated to activities that will cause them to forego early withdrawal from high school and even acts of delinquency.

The setting that the school can provide as a comfortable, usable, and attractive neighborhood meeting place will attract young and old. It will have homelike rooms flexible for use by large or small groups, equipped with varied types of facilities. Among these are library, gymnasium, shops, auditorium, cafeteria, laboratories, and classrooms.

In large cities the school will be located adjacent to parks and playgrounds with library, gymnasiums, and auditorium made easily accessible to users of the park as the park or playground is made usable to school pupils during the school day.

In towns and rural locations there will be such facilities as large fields, picnic groves, camps, and demonstration farm. There will be opportunities for parents to discuss the problems of children, for housewives to share homemaking ideas, for businessmen to play volleyball or horseshoes, for young folks to dance, for people to engage in creative art or handwork, for alumni to gather, and for office holders or candidates to explain governmental policies.

One of the unique human-relations values that grows out of the elementary school's service as a neighborhood center is that it facilitates the mingling in an easy and purposeful way of children with youth, with matured adults, and with the old. This type of tolerance and association is often the basis for sound human relationships in the form of equal opportunities for people of all races, religions, nationalities, and economic levels that increasingly involve children as they mature. The fact that older members of the child's family come together in neighborly relations in the school center paves the way in improved adult attitudes that so often affect the child's attitude and the school's program in human relations.

SCHOOL PLANT DESIGNED TO SERVE HUMAN-RELATIONS CENTER

For the school of tomorrow, serving human relations both in its instructional program and in its functions as a neighborhood center, a flexible varied plant design is used. With successful *democratic living replacing academic information as the main objective*, special elasticity in the organization of rooms and furniture indoors, as well as increased space and facilities outside the school building, will distinguish it from the present elementary school plant.

The chief means for achieving greater flexibility in room layout will be accomplished through the original architectural plans by providing for varied learning enterprises, such as *large-group sessions comprising three or four parallel classes* and small-group or individual conferences. There will be rooms of varying rather than standardized dimensions. Elasticity for

an evolving program will be assured chiefly by movable partitions, so that large or small rooms can be set up without difficulty and in conformance with the needs of the time. Saving achieved through making the building itself less ornamental and permanent can be devoted toward obtaining greater flexibility.

All room furniture will be movable, consisting of desk-seat combinations or tables and chairs. Files, cases for reference materials, and pupil progress materials will be standard equipment. Tape recorders, phonographs, television, radio, and sound projectors will be among the types of equipment providing for the varied ways of learning.

The school library will be decentralized to serve classroom libraries; laboratories and practical-arts centers will be provided; diorama spaces will be distributed throughout corridors; and centers for personnel work, health services, and restrooms for staff members and pupils will be appropriately placed.

In neighborhoods in large cities where ground space is restricted, air conditioning and elevator service in buildings of more than two floors will add to physical health and comfort in the new elementary school.

Another feature of the school plant of the future will be the inclusion of provisions for using different parts of the school building and grounds without the necessity of opening the whole plant. The library will be accessible to the community on days when the rest of the building is closed; provisions will be made for the use of the gymnasium, the auditorium, or other special purpose rooms by different groups in the community without disturbing the rest of the school facilities. The school building and its grounds will be so planned that many parts can operate as separate functioning units whenever it is desirable to use them. These features of the emerging school will help develop its use as a community center for many different phases of neighborhood activity. The school will become the focus of many activities of many groups, old and young, of the school community.

A crowning feature in developing improved human relations will be the provision of spacious school grounds where possible and a field both for recreation and the cultivation of plant and animal life. Here the rural school would appear to have an advantage over the city school; but in the cities a portion, or perhaps the whole, of a park will be devoted to the conduct of a farm that will be used by the various elementary schools for viewing and participating in the raising of animals, grains, and other plants. Also, the city school, when necessary, will utilize its roofs and grounds for garden and greenhouse purposes. The introduction of farm experiences and learnings into the program of the city school will improve understanding of economic and social problems shared by rural and urban people.

STAFF PERSONNEL TO BE TRAINED FOR NEW PROGRAMS

An outstanding feature of tomorrow's elementary school will be the teaching staff. One of the main qualifications of the new teacher will be her educability—her capacity for continuous social, emotional, and intellectual growth. For her the ability to learn with her pupils will far outweigh a large stock of learning in advance of, or remote from, the current interests and experiences of her pupils.

The teacher in the new elementary school will be a student of child development. She will bend her training in educational principles toward the solution of such problems in the case of each child coming under her guidance.

In the use of the social worker's techniques, the new teacher will be markedly proficient. She will be trained in the techniques of home visitations, field trips, contacts with health and welfare agencies, and case work.

Toward her place in the total school setting, the coming elementary school teacher will take an attitude differing greatly from that of her predecessors. She will not look upon her school day as a series of classes in which education goes on and a series of extra-class duties that are routine and burdensome, but will regard the entire range of activities over which she

has supervision as purposeful and profitable educational experiences for pupils. She will make corridor duty a training in *civic service for assisting pupil marshals*; she will be freed from classwork to visit a home; and she may spend a period counseling an individual pupil regarding choice of subject fields and another period instructing a large group of pupils in the auditorium. A student of the purposes of the total-school program and the relations of her own activities to it, she will move flexibly and purposefully through her school day.

Best of all, the new elementary school teacher will sense her influence as a leader of children and, through the children, of public opinion regarding the school. Knowing, too, that what she does will be a matter of keen report in the home, and beyond the home in the community, she will increase the influence of the elementary school as the educational center of the neighborhood while improving the quality of her service to children.

• CURRICULUM TO BE BASED ON SUCCESSFUL LIVING

The curriculum of the emerging elementary school will be based increasingly on guidance of pupils in the experiences of successful daily living. The particular pattern of the curriculum will, for the larger schools, partake of many designs rather than mainly of a single form of the main patterns advocated today. In smaller schools, the curriculum may be made largely on the spot. The form utilized will be based on the way successful living experiences can best be organized for teacher and parent guidance.

Knowledge and skills will be acquired, *not as ends in themselves*, but as means for carrying out intelligently and purposefully the activities of effective daily living in school, home, and community. Attention will be given to the developing nature of the child as well as to the needs of society, with continuity of learning experiences based on the maturity levels at infancy, early childhood, adolescence, and the like.

Pupils will share the purposes and methods as well as the

carrying out of the work with their teachers. There will be numerous small projects for pupils to carry on individually as well as larger projects for small groups or the total class. The individual projects will be carried on concurrently with the co-operative enterprises, and more than one of the latter may be in progress at the same time; in short, the classroom situation will parallel closely the varied complexity and tempo of life in the community itself. Learning assignments will be individualized on such bases as reading ability, home backgrounds, intelligence, temperament, and special aptitudes, and the varied ways of learning, such as observing, making things, discussing, listening, and viewing, as well as the more conventional ways of reading and writing, will be fully utilized in meeting individual needs.

Auditorium arts, pupil activities, radio, television, library reading, motion pictures, and the like, discriminately guided, will tend to replace conventional homework and study periods. Evaluation will be based on activities of current and future living actually carried out in school, home, and community rather than on information about why or how they should be carried out. This means testing at various stages after the learning has been experienced as well as at the present. Technical tests to measure learning skills, such as the three R's, intelligence, and special aptitudes, will still have an important role in the curriculum.

ADMINISTRATION TO BE FLEXIBLE AND DEMOCRATIC

In the emerging elementary school, administration will be the servant of the educational program, rather than its master. The administrative office will disappear as the hub of the school's activities, but in its place will be an office performing the functions of a service station for teachers and pupils as they engage in various learning situations. Class sizes and subject groupings will be sufficiently flexible to provide the maximum accommodations for pupil needs.

Educational science will be the determining factor in deciding what procedures will be used in the democratic administration of the emerging elementary school. Administration will thus become a mutual responsibility of principal and teachers, participation in its functions not being regarded as a favor conferred by the former or as a concession to be exploited by the latter. Democracy will be practiced not from a sentimental point of view, but because it is the most efficient procedure for managing the affairs of the school. Teachers will not only accept their right to share in administration, but will accept responsibility for professional conduct and service of the members of their group.

There will be marked flexibility of teacher movement, with corresponding flexibility in pupil programs and schedules. This will be particularly true in the work of extremely slow or markedly gifted pupils. Teachers will be freed to confer with parents either at home or in the school to meet parents' convenience. Principals may stagger teachers' schedules to permit supervision of activities in after-school hours and during week ends.

The principal will insure a school atmosphere in which even timidly disposed teachers will not hesitate to criticize an office policy or procedure. Teachers, on the other hand, will not refrain from supporting measures advanced by principal or teacher leaders for fear of criticism by an unprofessional colleague.

Principals and teaching staffs in the elementary school that is to come will work with their fellows in other schools of the system to develop central-office attitudes and policies favorable to curriculum and administrative initiative that can come only from unfettered freedom of the individual school. This will mean that the work of the individual school will proceed within a framework of policies that serve and stimulate the local units. It means that both central office and local administration never become administration for their own sake, but management to serve teachers and pupils on the learning front.

SUMMARY

In taking steps to bring their school into the line of educational advance that will probably characterize the emerging school, principal, teachers, and parents must take particular cognizance of the factor of time. *They should conceive of the new elementary school as a co-operative enterprise involving long-range pioneering and development.* Especially should they avoid the tendency of some administrators and teachers to "cover ground," and "to set deadlines for getting things done." They should not be discouraged by failure to bring projects to early fruition, nor by the fact that what is planned for terms of months may require years for realization.

Another principle to be observed by the elementary school staff that undertakes educational pioneering is that *a measurable, if not complete, degree of understanding and acceptance of program changes on the part of teachers, parents, and other community members is indispensable to local educational advance.* Teachers must realize that, even if they themselves are agreed on an educational policy that is controversial, community members may regard them as too far removed from the realities of community living to trust them fully with decision regarding materials or methods in areas of conflict. What must be done is for staff members to work with citizens until mutual understanding and agreement are reached.

The members of an elementary school staff desiring to achieve educational gains should not remain in a state of waiting for suitable theory to be developed to meet their needs in new areas. *Staff members should become makers, as well as users, of educational theory.* This they can do because they have the means at hand in the form of school, pupils, homes, and community resources to develop principles as well as practices better than any other persons. Nothing they themselves could do would accomplish more to make their school a truly emerging elementary school.

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MODERN CONCEPTION OF LEADERSHIP

The dictionary definition of the term *leader* is "one who goes before to guide or to show the way in some action, opinion, or movement." Implied in this definition is recognition and authority to precede or to direct those who are expected to serve as co-workers or collaborators. Leadership in democratic society is therefore the process through which a group is influenced or led by a leader to accept the role of collaborators in working for the realization of recognized goals. The success of the process is dependent on the leader; that is, the one who assumes the leadership and becomes the accepted leader of the group.

The phenomenon of leadership is dependent upon the individual dominance and group acquiescence. But this relationship is not that of dictator and subjects. The leader must be unselfish and sincerely interested in the welfare of those he undertakes to lead. On the other hand, the collaborators must be co-operative and responsive to the efforts of the leader. In brief, the control exercised by the leader should be with the consent of, through the co-operation of, and for the ultimate benefit of the collaborators.

The kind of leadership described operates as a two-way process. The leader influences his collaborators, and they in turn influence his views. The change in the views of the collaborators is generally a gradual process through which they come to accept the modified views of the leader. In the end they identify themselves with the leader, and in so doing they experience satisfaction vicariously from his experience. This is the basis of loyalty to the leader and the willingness of the collaborators to sacrifice for a common cause.

NATURE OF PREPARATION FOR EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The leader of a school or school system who is chosen to furnish leadership in elementary education is generally selected by the chief school administrator with the advice of his associates and the approval of the board of education. If this procedure is followed, the members of the school staff who will

function as collaborators with the leader should have participated in the process of selection. Implicit in the choice is fitness for the role of leadership. Usually most leaders have to pass through a period of growth and development, as previously implied, regardless of the preparation for leadership *that they may have received*.

It would be unwise to select personnel for leadership in elementary education without full consideration of their preparation for the functions they are expected to perform. These functions according to Pigors¹ are initiation, administration, and interpretation.

The leader who is afraid to venture beyond the beaten trail of experience fails in the first of these functions of leadership. To lead, he must initiate new ideas. It is, of course, better that these ideas be originated and projected as problems for the consideration of collaborators with the leader than as copyrighted thoughts of the leader to be accepted without question or modification. By the method indicated, growth is induced, and the collaborators tend to identify themselves with the leader's ideas.

The act of facilitating the growth of collaborators through the solving of problems is administration. This is an almost exclusive service of leadership. Evidently, the service cannot be rendered by a novice. It involves knowledge of the ends to be attained through the solving of problems essential to the welfare of the collaborators and of the means by which the ends can be realized most effectively.

Preparation for the exercise of the function of leadership cannot be accomplished merely through courses in leadership technology. If so, the professor of education who accumulated the largest bag of tricks and the longest lists of gadgets used by leaders would be of greatest service in preparing his students for the responsibilities of leadership. But the retailing of administrative tricks, devices, and gadgets is not considered

¹ Paul Pigors, *Leadership or Domination* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935).